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HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

By FRED B. MILLETT

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When one has attempted to express his views on the future of liberal education in America in a book entitled *The Rebirth of Liberal Education*, there would seem to be little point in discussing the matter further. But a book is written in a kind of psychological vacuum, and when the fresh air of the world makes its way into that vacuum, when, in other words, one's book is reviewed, favorably and unfavorably, by a variety of critics in a variety of places, when it has been discussed and commented on by one's academic colleagues, one becomes acutely aware of how far short one fell of expressing satisfactorily or persuasively what one was trying most desperately to say.

The central thesis of *The Rebirth of Liberal Education* was that if college education is to become genuinely liberal again, the subjects that constitute the Humanities must be restored to the primary place in the curriculum. If I had said that the Humanities should have a place and emphasis equal to those of the Social and the Natural Sciences, very few of my colleagues would have been interested or irked. It was the word *primary* that upset them.

There are all sorts of reasons why anyone in the academic profession, whether his subject is Latin or the care and nurture of cows, should consider his subject the most important subject in the curriculum. A distinguished historian under whom it was once my privilege to study used to insist that the failure of herring (or was it mackerel?) to show up off the coast of Northern Europe in a certain period changed the course of history, and I believe there have been historians who insisted that the primary cause of the fall of the Roman Empire was malaria. Such historians felt a natural pride in having put their finger on the *primary* cause of some great change in the world's history; secondary causes are decidedly secondary considerations. We are all—for what the

psychologist would call both good and bad reasons—inclined to bolster our egos by persuading ourselves that the particular activity to which we are devoting our lives is the most important one in which we could possibly engage. Some of my colleagues would undoubtedly feel a painful sense of inferiority if they were forced to admit that the subject to which they were devoting their lives was secondary in importance to any other subject in the liberal arts curriculum. Perhaps not the least service my little book rendered the academic community was the encouragement it gave a number of people to think out—perhaps for the first time in their lives—the reasons, good and bad, why their particular subject or the group of subjects to which their subject belonged was as important as any other subject in the curriculum.

The reason for my view that the Humanities ought to occupy the primary place in the liberal arts curriculum I may well repeat here, since it comes close to the heart and soul of the whole problem. The reason is that these subjects, rather than the Social Sciences or the Natural Sciences, are those *most directly* concerned with the highest values that man has achieved or envisioned, values that may be classified as philosophical, religious, and aesthetic. Here the crucial words are *most directly*. Every one of the great disciplines *has* philosophical and religious and—possibly—aesthetic implications. As I tried to make clear, every one of the great disciplines may be taught in such a way as to bring out its philosophical, religious, and aesthetic values, but I had thought that it was evident on the face of it that philosophy is more directly concerned with philosophical problems than physics, that religion is more directly concerned with religious values than economics, and that literature, for example, is more directly concerned with aesthetic values than biology.

II

My assumption that man's philosophical, religious, and aesthetic values are the highest values has come in for a considerable amount of criticism, and my contention that such is the case has been cried down as an example of *a priori* thinking. Since I was graduated from Amherst during one of its least inspiring periods and have

not, perhaps, had the benefit of a genuinely liberal education, I am not quite sure that I know what *a priori* thinking is, but from what I think it is, I have reason to feel some assurance that it is not so shoddy a kind of thinking as some of my critics think it is. Man, Ernst Cassirer held, is the symbol-making animal, and the symbol-systems he devises are repositories of those values that he has found in his experience to be most worth while; in other words, man is driven to distinguish not only between what is and what is not valuable in his experience but between what is more valuable than something else that is also valuable. I should think it self-evident that what a man thinks of God is more significant than what he thinks of the Lieutenant Governor of the sovereign state of Connecticut; what he thinks of as a good deed is more important than what he regards as a good job; what he finds beautiful in a sunset is more significant than what he knows about the distance of the earth from the sun. What we mean by Greek culture is not certainly a matter of how many slaves there were in Plato's Athens but what ideas Plato entertained that still have meaning for us; what we mean by Renaissance culture is not a matter of the number of cases of syphilis—I believe there were sixteen—which an Italian physician had an opportunity to observe among the Borgias but what Michelangelo did with the Sistine Chapel.

Two further criticisms of the views expressed in *The Rebirth of Liberal Education* are deserving of more serious attention, since they result from my failure to express with unmistakable clarity the views I intended to express. One of the criticisms is that I am concerned exclusively with the cultivation of the individual and not at all with the kind of society in which he is to live and move and have his being, that the values to which I am urging primary devotion are self-regarding values and not altruistic values. I am not inclined to deny altogether the soft impeachment of the first part of this criticism. Like an infinitely greater teacher and thinker, I believe that education, cultivation, intellectual and moral redemption—if one may borrow a term from theology—take place—when they take place at all—in the individual and not in the group, and that the liberal college, certainly, is concerned, if it sees its function clearly, with educating the individual, with developing in so far as possible the admirable potentialities he has

by giving him the most stimulating and illuminating experience it is possible for it to give him. I am not, however, inclined to accept without protest the charge that the values that I regard as the highest are self-regarding and not social values. The ethical studies that are part and parcel of both philosophy and religion are certainly concerned, not with the ideal of conduct for an individual in an ivory tower, but with the ideal of conduct for individuals living in and working with a world of men; indeed, both philosophical and religious ethics are intimately concerned not merely with the problem of the ideal toward which the individual should strive, but the ideal toward which a society should strive. The charge that aesthetic values are self-regarding values is not one that it is perhaps quite so easy to meet. The answer to the charge depends, of course, on the nature of one's aesthetics, and that problem—like every other problem—is ultimately philosophical. In terms, at any rate, of the system of aesthetics under which I operate, aesthetic values are certainly not self-regarding values. The pleasure which, to use a Horatian term, is essential to aesthetic experience may very well be considered self-regarding, but the profit—to borrow Horace's other term—is certainly *not* self-regarding. It is not necessary to assume that every work of art will bring home to every reader or observer an overt moral, but it is possible to contend that every work of art will, or may, increase the observer's sensitivity, give him insight into the artist's value-system, and deepen his awareness of the complexity of human personality and of the relationships that may exist among personalities or between a personality and a society. Conrad has expressed more movingly than any one else of whom I can think both the pleasure aspect and the profit aspect of the aesthetic experience in his famous statement of his conception of the artist's informing purpose: "He speaks to our capacity for delight and wonder, to the sense of mystery surrounding our lives; to our sense of pity and beauty, and pain; to the latent feeling of fellowship with all creation—and to the subtle but invincible conviction of solidarity that knits together the loneliness of innumerable hearts to the solidarity in dreams, in joy, in sorrow, in aspiration, in illusion, in hope, in fear, which binds men to each other, which binds together all humanity—the dead to the living and the living to the unborn."

The second criticism that deserves some consideration is that I regard the establishment and maintenance of courses in the Humanities as the means by which the Humanities are to be given primacy in the liberal arts college curriculum. I am not at all surprised that at least one of my readers should have attributed this view to me, inasmuch as one of the chapters in my book is devoted to describing interdepartmental courses or programs in the Humanities and another is devoted to experimental methods of teaching courses in the Humanities. This emphasis, perhaps I had better explain, grew out of the circumstances under which the book was written. Its initial form was that of a report written for the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation on what was being done to revivify and revitalize the Humanities. The publication of the report, in a somewhat modified form, was a direct consequence of the feeling of both the Director, David H. Stevens, and the publisher that there were things in the book that might very well interest a wider audience than the staff of the Foundation. What I am suggesting is that my emphasis on courses and methods in the book is—so far as my own views are concerned—a misleading, if a naturally misleading, emphasis. I have been struggling in the academic world too many years to have any illusions about the efficacy of any particular course in humanizing a student. No course is any better or any worse than the man who is teaching it, and no course, if taught by men of poor and meager spirit, is going to give the student the experience of intellectual liberation. The rebirth of liberal education depends then ultimately not on the devising of new curricula or new methods, although both of these are important, but on the production of more teachers in every discipline who are genuinely humanistic in themselves and in their attitude. This is the problem that every college president who is genuinely concerned with liberal education faces when he goes out to search for a chemist, a sociologist, or a teacher of elementary French. This is the problem with which the deans of graduate schools ought to concern themselves if they have any sense of responsibility to the colleges in which they hope to place their graduate students and to the society of which those colleges are an integral part.

The final charge on which I want to comment is that I am hostile, not only to the Natural Sciences and the Social Sciences but

particularly to the great discipline of history. The problem of the humanistic attitude toward the Physical and the Social Sciences I shall consider presently; at the moment, I should like to attempt to make clear my attitude toward history. I am not at all hostile to history when it is properly approached or when its inevitable limitations are not lost sight of, as they very frequently are. I am hostile to history as to any other of the great disciplines when it operates or attempts to operate without asking itself what it is or what are its purposes, potentialities, and limitations. I am hostile to history as a method applied to the Humanities when some other method—as I shall point out later—is a more appropriate and meaningful one. On the first count, historians, like teachers of chemistry or teachers of literature, are altogether too prone to lose sight of the forest in their preoccupation with the trees. They are too absorbed in the study and teaching of English or American or Chinese history ever to pause to ask the question, "What is history and what is its use, if any?" too reluctant to consider the nature of their discipline and the ways in which it is like and unlike the other great disciplines. Historians and other scholars addicted to the historical approach to their disciplines calmly assume that, if events are arranged chronologically, their meaning will inevitably emerge. What they fail to make clear to themselves and to their students is that a chronological arrangement of events has no intrinsic meaning, that any meaning that may be attributed to any chronological series of events is only one of the possible meanings that that series of events may tend to validate. In Anglo-Saxon countries, most historians seem to suffer from the delusion that history finds its meaning in the rise and spread of the democratic ideal; I should like to see someone teach history as having its meaning in the rise and spread of more and more despotic and powerful tyrannical enslavements of man's spirit. In the light of the behavior of mankind in the twentieth century the second meaning seems to be as defensible an hypothesis as the first. The second ground for my hostility to history is based not on the behavior of historians but on the behavior of men in the Humanities who regard the historical method as the one most appropriate to the study of the Humanities, when it is not—as I shall try to show presently—the most appropriate and illuminating one.

III

The more constructive part of the assignment I have given myself now confronts me, the attempt to define the humanistic attitude and to show how it may manifest itself in the teaching of the Natural Sciences, the Social Sciences, and the Humanities. I shall admit at once that it is not easy to define the humanistic attitude, although there is no task more necessary for any one concerned with the revival of liberal education anywhere in the world. I even admit to a slight distaste for the word *humanist*, but the distaste arises from the varieties of meanings which have been attached to the term and not to the term itself. One of the most recent students of Renaissance humanism, Wilhelm Rüegg, in his *Cicero und der Humanismus* (Zürich, 1946), attempts to distinguish it, on the one hand, from the medieval objectivist world-systematizations, and, on the other hand, from a mere enthusiasm for classical antiquity and a proclaiming of man as the measure of all things. But Dr. Rüegg is more fortunate in the negative than in the positive aspects of his definition; while he regards humanism as characteristic of a type of mind that is neither objective nor scientific, he is not very helpful when he insists that it is a type of mind concerned with other than objective scientific values and in the belief in the communication of faith and knowledge among men of good will. But there is perhaps a clue here to the meaning that I attribute to the humanistic attitude. In the terms that I have already suggested, the humanistic attitude is that of a person who believes that the highest values which man has conceived are philosophical, religious, and aesthetic values, who attempts in so far as lies within his power to embody these values in the life he is living, and who, if he is a teacher, devotes his professional activity to the elucidation and dissemination of the clearest comprehension that he can arrive at of those values, and constantly attempts—whatever his subject—to bring out the relationship and the pertinence of his subject to one or another of these types of value. Whatever validity my definition may have, one of the things to be said for it is that it does not limit humanists to persons engaged in the study or teaching of the Humanities, and, therefore, if it is properly understood and applied, it does away with any irrational feeling of

superiority that teachers of the Humanities might entertain or any irrational feeling of inferiority that teachers of the Natural Sciences and the Social Sciences might suffer from. The definition makes clear that it is not the subject taught that makes a humanist but the humanist that makes any subject he teaches humanistic. College presidents and faculties concerned with the revival of liberal education should, therefore, be primarily concerned in the making of appointments with the quality of the candidate's humanism, whether the subject he is teaching is literature, economics, or biology.

Since the notion that a teacher of economics or of biology should—at least in a liberal arts college—be a humanist is a novel idea to many college presidents and faculty members, I may, in conclusion, attempt to suggest what the humanistic approach to the Natural Sciences, the Social Sciences, and the Humanities means and involves. At the end of a talk I gave to the Wesleyan University Chapter of the American Association of University Professors, Lieutenant Gleason of our V-12 unit summed up what I was trying to say with a neatness that I envy. "What you are saying," he remarked, "is that the Humanities ought to be taught less historically, and that the Social Sciences and the Natural Sciences ought to be taught more historically, and that all the groups of disciplines should be taught more philosophically." This is the essence of what I am trying to propose.

What is the humanistic approach to the Natural Sciences? Well, as Lieutenant Gleason suggested, it is, on the one hand, the philosophical and therefore, incidentally, the ethical approach and, on the other hand, the historical and not the merely contemporaneous approach. In an institute of technology it should be obvious that the primary approach to the Physical Sciences should be scientific; in the liberal arts college, I am convinced, the primary approach to the sciences, whether Natural or Social, should be not scientific but philosophical and historical, since it is by means of the emphasis on the philosophical substructure and implications of the sciences that their humanistic values may be clarified and brought home to the student. To be more specific, students who specialize in one or another of the Natural Sciences are given admirable training in the application of the scientific method, which

is the basis and source of whatever science has accomplished, but they are given little or no intelligent—much less philosophical—understanding of what the scientific method is, and much less of what the epistemological and metaphysical implications of the scientific method are. Nor are they given any adequate conception of either the history of science or of the contribution of science to human culture. Scientists may very well say that it is not their job to become historians of science, but the fact of the matter is that only a scientist can become a really satisfactory historian of science, and, if the scientists do not see to it that their subject is given proper and serious historical treatment, who will? Of the great divorce between science and that branch of philosophy and religion called ethics, there should be, in the atomic age, little necessity for comment. Nothing can give us a better occasion for sardonic laughter than the spectacle of the scientists who made possible the atomic bomb having hysterics because the nonscientific world will not take their little handiwork seriously. What I am inclined to ask is, Are scientists men or are they machines? If they are men, that is, beings with potentially ethical natures, the time to consider the consequences of producing the atomic bomb was before it was produced and not after. One of the hallmarks of an ethical being is that he weighs the consequences of his actions before he acts. What our great scientists have done is to act without weighing the consequences, and then indulge in orgies of hysteria because the nonscientific world will not protect itself (and incidentally them) from the consequences of their own acts. One of my deepest regrets is that when my atomic bomb falls, I shall probably not have time to remark wryly to some nearby scientist, "I *told* you so."

Social scientists, it seems to me, have two basic jobs which ought to be settled before they proceed with the accumulation of further mountains of statistics. Their first task is that of attempting to decide, on the basis of proper philosophical procedures, to what extent their subject is scientific and to what extent their subject is inevitably and irredeemably nonscientific, or to put it differently, to what extent the scientific method is and is not applicable to the study of social phenomena. The second task of the social scientists is identical with that of the natural scientists, the

answering of the problem of the relationship between the Social Sciences and ethics. For the description of social phenomena, however desirable and worthy an aim it may be, is of vastly less significance than the evaluation of the social phenomena that have been described, and that evaluation can be made only in the light of some ethical system. Nothing very significant can be said about either divorce or political primaries, in strictly mathematical terms; anything that is significant in the statistical study of either divorce or political primaries is significant because of its relationship to some ethical system which should be kept clearly in mind and the philosophical bases of which should be very carefully investigated.

IV

Finally, what is the humanistic attitude toward the Humanities? One might have thought that it would be implicit in the activity of any reputable scholar or teacher of the Humanities. They at least should have remained clear-headed as to their primary obligation to their subject and to their students. The opposite is, unfortunately, all too often the case. No one has been guilty of a greater betrayal of genuinely liberal education than the teachers of the Humanities. Philosophers, teachers of religion, teachers of literature and of the fine arts have succumbed so completely to the lure of the scientific method and the historical approach that they have made these primary and reduced the method that should be primary to a secondary position. The extent of the betrayal may be illustrated specifically by the treatment given two important periods in English literature in the first two volumes to be published in what should have been the finest scholarly history of English literature of our time: Professor Douglas Bush's *English Literature in the Earlier Seventeenth Century, 1600-1660* (Oxford, 1946) and Sir Edmund K. Chambers' *English Literature at the Close of the Middle Ages* (Oxford, 1946). Both these volumes are products of the best contemporary American and British scholarship. Professor B. Ifor Evans has reviewed both these volumes in the (London) *Observer*, for January 20 and April 27, 1946, respectively.

With regard to the first, Professor Evans said, "Douglas Bush was given 150,000 words for the earlier seventeenth century, and, though he has struggled bravely, one feels that he is cramped. Over thirty pages are occupied with lists of dates. . . . Many readers would prefer to have thirty more pages of Douglas Bush. The bibliographies, which are admirably contributed, occupy 170 pages, which is more than a third of the space given to Bush's narrative. English scholars will soon have to decide whether bibliography is a servant of the arts, or a rodent eating at the heart of the humanities." The absurdity of devoting more than a third of the space to the bibliographies is all the more conspicuous when one recalls the publication as recently as 1941 of the great four-volume *Cambridge Bibliographies of English Literature*, a series of scholarly bibliographies which would more than adequately fulfill the functions usurped by the bibliographies in the new *Oxford History*.

A portion of Professor Evans' criticism of the Chambers volume is even more to the point and must be quoted at some length. It is a matter of the author's treatment of the medieval lyric, "The falcon hath borne my mate away," which Professor Evans rightly calls "one of the most beautiful of all medieval lyrics," in which "a chivalric and Christian setting unites with a gesture that has a domestic pathos, to reveal the tragedy of Christ's death."

Lully, lulley, lully, lulley,
The falcon hath borne my mate away.
He bore him up, he bore him down;
He bore him into an orchard brown.
In that orchard there was a hall,
That was hanged with purple and pall.
And in that hall there was a bed;
It was hanged with gold so red.
And in that bed there lyeth a knight,
His wounds bleeding day and night.
By that bed's side there kpeeeth a maid,
And she weepeth both night and day.
And by that bed's side there standeth a stone,
"Corpus Christi" written thereon.

Of the criticism of this lyric Professor Evans writes: "All that

Sir Edmund has to say in direct criticism, apart from the fact that the poem is outstanding and obscure, is that 'this carol is in more than one way abnormal. The lully refrain seems inappropriate, since it is not a lullaby, and the chivalric setting is unusual.' There is no recognition that one has stepped outside the historically important into the presence of one of the great English lyrics. . . a poem which remains a living symbol. It has a beauty reminiscent of some of Yeats's poems, and it has greatness even if there are elements of obscurity."

I can think of no finer illustration of the point that I am trying to make. The error into which Sir Edmund has fallen—along with most of the great and little scholars of our time—is to regard the historical approach to literature as the primary approach and to make the approach that ought to be primary, namely the aesthetic, secondary. Until teachers in the area of the Humanities recognize that the most appropriate approach to philosophy is the philosophical, to religion the religious, and to literature and the fine arts, the aesthetic, we shall have very few humanists operating in the field of Humanities, and if we do not find them there, where shall we find them?

ARE THE SOCIAL SCIENTISTS BACKWARD?

By DONALD L. KEMMERER

University of Illinois

A cartoon on the editorial page of the *New York Herald Tribune* excited considerable comment last autumn. It showed two characters, a little genius boy named "Physical Sciences" and a big moronic boy named "Social Sciences." Physical Sciences looked like a Quiz Kid and Social Sciences seemed a fine prospect for fullback. However, Social Sciences was still plodding along in grade school, whereas Physical Sciences was boasting that he was now going over the hill to college and doing very nicely, thank you. Many thinking people are worried about this uneven intellectual race of the sciences.

We seem to be solving the mysteries of chemistry and physics ever more rapidly and devising terrifically dangerous weapons, like the atom bomb, as we proceed. Yet we appear to be making painfully slow progress, if any, in solving the mysteries of harmonious human relationships, of effective methods of governing, and of smoothly functioning economic systems. It is widely believed that if the social scientists could progress faster, many of our difficulties would disappear, and that if they do not proceed faster, our world civilization itself may disappear. That has been said so many times now that it has become a bromide. The first time I heard it, some eighteen years ago, I was deeply impressed, as perhaps you were too, the first time you heard it. Today everyone is repeating it.

My physical scientist friends ask me what is the matter with the social scientists. One pointed out that for the first time in modern history the cost of training and equipping a soldier was less than the value of what he would destroy in war. The implication was that in the future it will require much longer to recover from major wars, and the tasks of the social scientists will become even more burdensome. Several of my social scientist friends search their

souls and attempt to calm their consciences because of their shortcomings. Yet they hardly know of what sins of omission they are guilty. Our college administrators blame us for being inadequate and ineffective and prod us to engage in some startling piece of research that will save the world. The public blames economists for not solving the mystery of the business cycle, for not controlling inflation, for costly and absurd New Deal experiments, and for a faulty price-control program. Since I am an economist, my examples will be drawn almost entirely from this branch of the social sciences. Most of all, people smile over economists' frequent disagreements, and still chuckle over the hoary gag that if two economists were laid end to end they still would not reach a conclusion. Too few social scientists attempt to defend themselves in the face of all this criticism.

The social scientists cannot help the world as much as the world expects them to. That is not because the social scientists lack either imagination or analytical abilities but rather because the obstacles they have to overcome are so numerous and varied. These obstacles fall into two major categories, namely, difficulties of scientific analysis and inability to convince the public or its leaders. A businessman might be tempted to call them production and marketing problems. Let us take up the difficulties of analysis first. It is because of them that the social sciences are often called inexact sciences as contrasted with the physical sciences, which can be more exact. For this reason, in fact, some purists even deny that the social sciences are sciences at all.

Difficulties of Analysis

In discussing the relative difficulties of analysis which the exact and inexact sciences face, let me begin with an analogy. Would you agree that swimmers are less skillful athletes than runners because swimmers do not move as fast as runners? You probably would not. You would quickly point out that water offers greater resistance to swimmers than the air and ground do to runners. Agreed, that is just the point. In seeking to solve their problems, the social scientists encounter greater resistance than the physical scientists. By that I do not mean to belittle the great accomplishments of physical scientists who have been able, for example, to

determine the structure of the atom without seeing it. That is a tremendous achievement; yet in many ways it is not so difficult as what the social scientists are expected to do. The conditions under which the social scientists must work would drive a physical scientist frantic. Here are five of those conditions. He can make few experiments; he cannot measure the results accurately; he cannot control the conditions surrounding the experiments; he is often expected to get quick results with slow-acting economic forces; and he must work with people, not with inanimate objects. Let us look at these conditions more closely.

1. Before a physical scientist will admit that his experiment has proved successful, he generally repeats it in his laboratory a great many times, sometimes hundreds of times. The economist, or the political scientist, however, has no laboratory other than the world before him, and its history. An economist who wants to find the effect of war on national income in the postwar period in major nations in modern times can uncover perhaps a score of usable examples. The business-cycle analyst knows that business cycles are a product of only the past century and a half, and that the major business cycles in leading industrial nations are comparatively few in number.

2. Chemists and physicists can weigh and otherwise measure solids, liquids, and gases fairly accurately, but the economist has less effective means of measurement. True, statisticians have devised many ways of correlating figures, determining and eliminating margins of error, and so forth, to the *n*th decimal point. Unfortunately, this exact mathematics is all too often used to measure units of differing quality or figures collected under uncontrolled conditions. Being able to measure to the *n*th decimal place has less meaning under such circumstances.

One or two examples will illustrate the point. For the past generation Americans have attached increasing importance to wholesale price indexes and cost-of-living indexes. As you know, in calculating these, a so-called normal year like 1896, 1913, 1926, or 1939 is selected as a base, and prices of several hundred representative goods and services are collected for that year and allotted their proper importance or weight in figuring the index. The prices of these same goods and services are again collected and similarly

weighed for each subsequent year. This is done every month now. These indexes have proved extremely useful to social scientists, and I do not want to underestimate their importance. They do have their limitations, however.

According to Bureau of Labor Statistics figures, the cost of living in December, 1947, was 136 per cent higher than it was in 1913. The comparison cannot be so accurate as that. For example, the quality of many of the manufactured goods involved in the 1913 index has improved greatly. Automobile tires cost about the same but will run five times as many miles before wearing out; also gasoline will carry the car farther; and, of course, the cars themselves are greatly improved. Transportation by car or train is faster, thereby saving valuable time; medical knowledge is better so that the average doctor's advice is worth more; fuel for heating homes is cleaner; and so on.

To take a more modern example of difficulties in using indexes, some of you may recall the Battle of the Indexes that raged in 1944. The government maintained that the cost of living had risen only about 23.1 per cent since January, 1941, and did not justify further wage increases, but the AFL and the CIO contended that 43.5 per cent was a more accurate measurement. That was a sizable difference of opinion. The labor statisticians emphasized that some important goods in the index were simply not available at OPA prices and could be obtained only on the black market. All of us had some experience with the poorer quality of numerous wartime goods and learned firsthand that items like white shirts or rented houses were virtually unobtainable at the ceiling prices on which the indexes were based. Under the circumstances, price indexes should be regarded as valuable trend indicators but should not be accepted as highly accurate measuring devices. When someone starts analyzing a price index to explain why it has risen, say 0.45 of 1 per cent, skepticism is in order. Yet it is by such accurate measurements that physical scientists reach significant conclusions.

3. The physical scientist can generally control the conditions surrounding his experiments, whereas the social scientist cannot. As my colleague, Professor Ralph Blodgett, has neatly described the situation, "The student of chemistry, for example, can place a

quantity of iron filings in a test tube, cover them with a certain amount of hydrochloric acid under controlled conditions, and be fairly confident of being able to observe and measure the results accurately. The economist cannot place the consumer in a test tube, pour a solution of lowered prices over him, and measure the results. Instead, he must rely on his observations of the consumer in the ordinary business of life where he will react to lowered prices in some way or other, amid a welter of other influences."

Let us take the example of a specific economic experiment. In 1933-34 the government, on advice of certain economists, devalued the gold dollar by 41 per cent. It was expected by the authors of this scheme that it would shortly raise the price level by 69 per cent and thereby restore prices to the so-called normal level of 1926. The purpose was to lighten the debt burden of farmers and others. But the wholesale price level rose only about 21 per cent in the next two years, much less than the experimenters anticipated. Even this disappointing rise could not be definitely ascribed to any single cause. There was good reason for believing some of it was owing to severe droughts, some to the AAA program, some to price increases due to rising wage and other costs under the NRA, and some to normal recovery from the depths of the depression. How much of the price rise was due to each of these? Who can do more than make a rough guess?

4. At this point some thoughtful person may interject, "Ah, but you are asking too much to expect the full results of that experiment to be apparent in so short a time as two years." The objection is well taken. In fact, the matter of time is the fourth difficulty which the social scientists must attempt to solve and yet cannot solve very well. The longer time he allows for his experiment to work out, the more extraneous factors are likely to creep in; and the shorter the time he allows, the more open he is to the accusation that his experiment is incomplete. Yet as the country and the world become more populous and more industrialized, the longer it takes economic and other forces to make themselves felt. At the same time, if the experimenting social scientist is, say, a government economist trying out some plan he has sold the administration, he must be able to show results quickly, convincingly, and on the first try. Otherwise, his theory is tagged as a failure.

Would the physical scientists like to make experiments under such conditions?

5. Another reason a government economist's experiment may fail is that people are necessarily the subject of the experiment; they know they are the subject, and they may want the experiment to succeed or to fail. In wartime, by economizing and working harder than usual to help win the war and combat inflation, they may successfully delay the operation of inflationary forces. Or people may sabotage an experiment because they dislike the political and economic philosophy behind it—many persons found the intricate regulations of NRA and OPA distasteful—or because the experiment hurts their pocketbook or the prestige they enjoy in their business, or both. The nature and purpose of any experiment cannot long be kept secret in a democracy. Increased pump-priming by the government in the latter 1930's seems to have made businessmen more distrustful. It slowed down the turnover of currency and the investment of risk capital and partially neutralized just what pump-priming was intended to achieve. As late as 1940 we still had considerable depression left if a figure of ten million unemployed means anything. Professor Joseph Schumpeter of Harvard went so far as to say about that time that recovery from depression had been the slowest where the greatest efforts had been made by governments to promote it—in France and in the United States.

Let us take another example. There has been a fairly serious depression in every major nation after every long war in modern times. We have been expecting one almost daily since V-J day in August of 1945. Government economists were especially sure in 1945 that widespread unemployment would follow the war and urged the administration to lay its plans accordingly and the public to prepare for the worst. But the depression has not come yet. It is frequently said that when a depression does come, it will be the best advertised one in history. This may be one important reason that it does not come, or at least that it has been so long delayed. To sum up the situation: the physical scientist does not have to contend with iron filings that resist being dissolved or whose character may change because they expect to be dissolved.

Once you understand the social scientist's difficulties, you will

have more patience with him. You will recognize that he can make few experiments, that even history offers him few clear-cut, documentable examples, and that he therefore has to supplement his findings with logic and intangible common sense. That is admittedly to depart from the realm of science and to invade that of judgment. It is at this point that the social scientist is most apt to make mistakes and that disagreements are most likely to arise. You should therefore be most skeptical when he relies on logic alone; yet at the same time you have to admit the necessity for his doing so.

In the past two generations few new principles have been established in the social sciences. This is contrary to the layman's beliefs, but it is true. If you doubt it, name some. True, many interesting theories have been advanced, but most of them have not been widely accepted. The reasons, it may be surmised, lie in the five difficulties just described, namely fewness of experiments, uncontrolled conditions, difficulties of measuring results, concluding experiments at the right time, and resistance by the subject of the experiment. Even if the social scientists eventually accept some of the new theories as principles, it will take many more years before the public and its leaders do likewise.

Difficulties of Convincing Others

There are several reasons why social scientists have a hard time convincing those who doubt their laws. First, their principles do not always operate, or sometimes seem not to operate. Since economics is representative of the social sciences, I shall continue to draw my examples from that field which I know best. Second, to the layman, there seem to be sharp differences of opinion among even competent economists. This fact causes many people to wonder whether it matters what policy is followed. Third, the very persons whom the economist may want most to convince often have strong reasons for not wanting to be convinced. At the same time the public, whose welfare is at stake, takes little interest in the argument. Fourth, it is difficult to demonstrate economic principles effectively. Illustrations need to be up to date and personal, but economic illustrations sometimes involve life on imaginary islands or are presented in complicated graphs. At best they deal with

groups of people from another time or another country. This is done to simplify the example and eliminate elements of controversy. It is hard to trace cause-and-effect relationships in a complex economic system like our own. More than one cause can nearly always be advanced for any development. Last, economic principles generally take not days and months but years and even decades to operate. Yet the government administrator has a problem he must solve now; he must be able to show quick results. Let us look at several historical illustrations of some of these statements.

1. The public expects principles to work every time. Physical scientists can rely on their laws to work every time. The law of gravity never fails. The existence of atomic energy has been demonstrated in most devastating fashion. But social scientists talk in terms of tendencies. They cannot be sure. Sometimes their laws appear to fail. There is always a reason when this happens. Occasionally the law needs further qualifications. More often the conditions necessary for its operation are not all present. Remember that one of these conditions is "other things being equal," and sometimes they are far from equal. On the blackboard, other forces that interfere can be conveniently brushed aside. In life, these other forces may nullify or redirect the original ones. The experienced economist may foresee and allow for some of the nullifying and redirecting forces, but he cannot expect to foretell all future events or to weigh them accurately. Sometimes he over-emphasizes an economic law or an economic force. That does not mean that the law is wrong but only that he has miscalculated its significance in this particular instance. But let us have some examples.

In 1878 Congress passed the Bland-Allison Act, under which \$2,000,000 in silver dollars was coined each month. The law was a "sop" to the silver-mining interests and to the farmers and debtors of the West. Critics said it was dangerous and inflationary. Pumping more money into circulation should tend to push prices up, other things being equal. But they were not equal. Despite the Bland-Allison Act, prices fell for another 18 years. Why was this so? For one thing the number of bank notes in circulation was somewhat reduced in this period. For another, a prosperous and growing nation needed additional money with which to do its in-

creasing business and consequently absorbed the silver without ill effects. Without these silver dollars, prices would probably have fallen even more. This does not prove that the critics of silver inflation were basically wrong but does show that they were unable to foresee all the compensating factors. Increasing the money supply has generally been dangerous, and they were acting on the strong probability that it would be again. It remains true that mankind would fare better by respecting this probability than by ignoring it.

The Agricultural Adjustment Administration affords another example. Any layman knows that a nation cannot become more prosperous by producing less. Yet the AAA proposed to make farmers more prosperous, and the rest of the nation as well, by planting fewer crops. Moreover the plan seemed to work, for in the next few years not only farm incomes but national income rose. How could this be? There were, of course, several other factors at work besides the AAA. Probably the momentum of normal recovery from the depths of a depression was largely responsible.

More examples might be cited. These two serve to illustrate that when a reputable economic principle fails to perform as expected, there is generally a good reason. Often it is some counter-vailing force, although the nature of that force is not always clear at the moment. Unfortunately, the layman is more impressed with the failure of the vaunted principle than with the economists' excuses.

2. When economists disagree, they confuse the layman and lessen his respect for economic principles. Why do economists disagree so much? There are two answers to this question. One is that the difficulties of analysis, which have been mentioned, make it hard to rule out any theory. Physicists can more readily disprove perpetual motion than economists can the equivalent theories based on "getting something for nothing." It is harder to discredit the "cranks" in the social sciences, although experienced scholars are able to recognize some of the same false panaceas proposed in each generation. And, remember, anyone can call himself an economist. Thus, a political leader with a new or costly program can always find an "economist" with a theory that will

give his program economic standing. When this pet theory is not upheld by subsequent events, the authors can plausibly point to uncontrollable factors or insufficient time as the reason for failure. Once in a while they are right.

The other answer to the accusation that economists disagree is that, despite some notable disagreements and failures, the majority of economists agree on most economic principles. It is their disagreements that are publicized, since nearly all economic principles affect our daily lives. Physicists, doctors, and many other professional men have their differences too. About ten years ago two very prominent physicists disagreed sharply over the structure of the atom. The fact that they agreed on most laws of physics was not publicized. Time will clearly reveal which physicist was right in his analysis, but time can rarely vindicate a social scientist so clearly. In the medical profession, too, doctors disagree on diagnosis and remedies. What does the layman do then, especially if he or a loved one is the patient? Usually he chooses the advice of the doctor he trusts most. If he was wise, he originally learned something of the professional standing of his doctors and of their relative success in the past. Likewise, in choosing which economist's advice to follow, the public official or voter should investigate his professional standing and other measures of his success.

Louis Howe, President Roosevelt's closest adviser at the start of his administration, told a Princeton University faculty group in 1933 that the President and his advisers had decided that few economic principles were worth respecting. Although the New Deal did not ignore all economists, it subsequently turned a deaf ear to the economic advice of two professors, one from Princeton and one from Harvard, who had had extensive experience in advising countries in financial difficulties. At the same time it readily accepted and acted on the unorthodox theories of economists of no experience. The latter promised quick results that would be politically pleasing. But following their advice produced meager immediate results and laid the first foundations for our present-day inflation.

A few years ago, at the height of New Deal spending, certain economists argued persuasively that it was not necessary to balance the budget every year. The government should spend more than its tax income in a depression and then pay off the debt when

prosperity came back. The idea was gladly accepted, and heavier taxes were postponed until prosperity returned. World War II made the debt larger and presumably even more necessary to retire. It also brought back prosperity. Now another reason, "It doesn't matter, we owe it to ourselves," is advanced by a new school of economists for again postponing debt retirement. They maintain that we live today in a changed or matured economy subject only to new laws. Are they right or are they deceiving themselves and the public with a pleasing rationalization? The more orthodox economists still worry over the mountainous debt. They point to numerous historical examples in which a heavy debt burdened or even bankrupted the nations that owed it. Texas, a century ago, numerous Latin-American nations, Germany, France, Italy, and even England after World War I are all examples in varying degrees. What are Congressmen, hounded by pressure groups, likely to decide after listening to the arguments of these two schools of economic thought? They should ask themselves whose reasoning is more solidly based on experience. But they may easily conclude that since the economists do not agree, they may as well choose the advice that is easier to take.

This much seems certain. If the easy way is taken and the debt burden causes trouble, the entire economics profession will receive a good share of the blame. Even those who say they gave the right advice will be told they should have protested more vigorously. If you think that statement is unduly pessimistic, then answer this. Who is remembered when the panic of 1929 is recalled? The many economists who urged caution or the famous one who said that "stock prices have reached what looks like a permanently high plateau?"

3. Social scientists must continually meet the objections of vested interests that will be hurt financially by the observance of certain of their principles. In any situation in which their investment and a principle conflict, the vested interests will probably deny that there is a principle. Or if they admit that there is one, they will deny that it is pertinent to the situation. Or if they admit its pertinence, they may say that the damage to them will be greater than any good accomplished. And while the discussion goes on, the public, who usually has the most to lose, may be

bored by the arguments, confused by the complexities of the issue, and indifferent as to the outcome. That is perhaps the most discouraging part of it all.

There is no issue on which economists have been in greater agreement in recent years than on the nation's silver-buying policy. In 1936 an agent of the conservative American Liberty League circulated a questionnaire on current economic issues at the annual meeting of the American Economic Association. To the question, "Do you approve the Administration's silver purchase plan?" 243 answered "no" and only one replied "yes." Since the 1870's the Western mining interests of the country have sought one law after another to increase government purchases of silver. Several times they have been successful. Their greatest victories have come when they had the support of pro-inflationary elements in the country, as in 1878, 1890, and 1933-34. In between they generally fought their battle alone. Silver is a profitable by-product of gold, copper, lead, and zinc mining. It is the owners of these mines who have been most interested in silver-purchase laws. These mines are located largely in several sparsely settled Far Western states. Repeatedly the 14 Senators from seven of those states, acting as a bloc, have refused to support vital pieces of legislation unless "something was done for silver." Writing in *Collier's* for October 11, 1947, Henry Morgenthau, Jr., said, "Even as late as 1939 Roosevelt was forced to 'buy' repeal of the Arms Embargo Act by agreeing to a more favorable price for domestic silver. Senator Key Pittman of Nevada told him, 'We have got 18 votes and what are you going to do about it?'" This industry has in recent years drawn over a billion dollars from the Federal treasury. The silver dollars have had only from 30 to 60 cents worth of silver in them, depending on the prevailing price for silver. The same is true of other silver coins. Thus silver has had to be redeemable in gold or gold shipments just as paper money is. Silver coins are nothing but promises to pay, written on silver. That is a needlessly expensive substance on which to write.

All this has been repeatedly pointed out to Presidents, Congressmen, and party leaders by many of the outstanding monetary economists of the country. Again and again the Economists National Committee on Monetary Policy, a nonpartisan and un-

prejudiced group of recognized and public-spirited economists, has exposed this silver "racket." But the strength of the pressure groups, the tactics of the 14 Senators, and most of all, the ignorance of the public on this somewhat technical problem have protected the silver interests.

To cite another brief but pertinent example, almost all of us are pleased that our taxes have been lowered lately. Yet most of us know that taxes probably should have been kept up and the surplus applied to cut the burdensome public debt. Still, immediate pleasure means more to us than fear of the long-run consequences.

4. Some economic principles are not complex but are difficult to demonstrate convincingly because their operation is not what it appears to be. An outstanding example is the tariff. This is also a subject on which economists are in almost unanimous agreement. On the 1936 Liberty League questionnaire already mentioned was the query, "Do you favor a reduction of the tariff?" Out of 238 economists answering, 220 replied "yes" and only 18 "no."

For years economists have taught that tariffs tend to lower the standard of living because they keep the consumer from buying in the cheapest market. They prevent the world from beating a path to the door of the man who makes the best mousetrap. They keep the public from enjoying the economies which specialized persons or specialized regions can offer. Most academic people are convinced that the economists are right. Yet progress in reducing tariffs has been painfully slow in the last century, if indeed there has been any progress at all. In 1930, when Congress passed the high Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act, one thousand economists petitioned President Hoover to veto it. He ignored them and signed it.

When economists are in such virtually unanimous agreement on a subject like the tariff, why are their logic and petitions ignored? You know the answer without being told. Each Congressman supported the tariff to protect the industries in his district. By "logrolling" with other Congressmen, protection for many industries was obtained. Some Congressmen thought selfishly of campaign-fund support from these industries, and some quite honestly feared that the competition of foreign products would spread unemployment in their districts. In many cases the mo-

tives were mixed. It was easy for a Congressman to fear that the competition of a cheaper foreign product would cause wage cuts or even factory shutdowns in his area and genuinely hurt some of his constituents. He may have been entirely right in this diagnosis. On the other hand, it was difficult for him to see that tariffs raised the cost of living a little for many of his constituents, and for many more people elsewhere in the country, that all these little increases added up to a greater amount than the losses to the few, and that tariffs discouraged the growth in this country of more suitable industries and thus destroyed opportunities for the persons who would prosper in them. It is virtually impossible to prove such future results in a convincing and scientific manner. It is particularly difficult when the Congressman is skeptical to start with and is under pressure from persons whose livelihood will be seriously hurt if the proof is accepted and acted upon.

5. Most economic principles take years to operate. Thus they neither assist nor alarm political leaders who want to solve problems as promptly and painlessly as possible. During the last generation this country has faced emergency problems in two world wars and a major depression. To meet these problems we have engaged in all kinds of economic experiments. Some of these experiments have flouted well-established economic principles. Why have so many experiments been made? Why have they so often flouted established principles? Partly because of the problems of government and partly because it takes so long for economic principles to operate. Such problems as huge agricultural surpluses, millions of unemployed, or costly wars to finance had to be met immediately. The easiest solution to the farm problem was to establish farm monopolies to increase farm income. And to meet staggering relief and war costs, billions of dollars of bonds were sold to banks. All these methods were admittedly contrary to orthodox economic principles. Critics were quick to rise and point out that flouting these principles would prove disastrous in the long run. To that government administrators were prone to reply that they had a problem to meet now, and that in the long run they would be dead or at least out of office. In fact, they would be out of office in the short run, too, if they failed to follow some plausible course of action and show results.

The handling of the farm problem in the 1930's is an illustration. The Great Depression witnessed sharply falling prices, and these were especially hard on farmers. Part of the trouble was owing to overproduction of agricultural commodities. The term "overproduction" needs to be defined carefully. Overproduction means producing more of some goods than can be sold at prices that will cover costs. There are four possible approaches to the overproduction problem in agriculture. They are: cutting costs, increasing demand, decreasing supply, and raising the general price level. Raising the price level helps because farm prices rise faster than other prices; besides, it enables farm debtors to pay their debts more easily. The first two of these four solutions—decreasing costs and increasing demand—are difficult to accomplish but are economically sound policies in the long run. The last two—decreasing supply and raising the general price level—get quick results but may cause serious dislocations in the long run.

The Administration, however, needed quick results and therefore employed the two policies that would get them. To decrease supply, a government-sponsored farm monopoly was established. This was the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA). Under its direction crops were limited and farm incomes quickly rose. But in time the higher prices for cotton, to take one example, caused some of our foreign customers for cotton to buy more from lower-priced cotton producers in other parts of the world. The South thus lost some of its best cotton customers, which was hardly a good permanent solution and could easily have been foreseen. It is noteworthy that in the 1936 poll of economists already referred to, 193 opposed the AAA program and only 29 favored it.

To raise the price level (the other short-run solution) Congress passed the famous Thomas Amendment to the AAA on May 12, 1933. This provided several ways to raise prices although only one was actually used. That was the devaluing of the dollar in 1933-34. It temporarily benefited the farmers but soon caused other nations to devalue their currencies too. Also it laid some of the foundations for the present-day inflation. In the same economists' poll of 1936, 151 favored stabilizing the dollar at its then present gold value and only 56 were opposed. In brief, two dubi-

ous policies which got quick results were adopted despite the fact that they were known to be dangerous from an economic viewpoint.

Conclusion

All the foregoing illustrations show clearly why the economists and other social scientists seem to make less progress than the physical scientists. The social scientists are not backward or unprogressive in the sense that they lack scientific ability, ingenious ideas, willingness to work hard at their profession, or even the desire to experiment on the public. Their slower pace is the result of at least five impediments to developing new principles and five difficulties in the way of convincing the public to accept any principles, new or old. Even if an economic panacea for the world's ills were found, it would probably not gain acceptance for years. More effective ways of convincing the public are greatly needed. The social scientists could probably keep up with the physical scientists quite satisfactorily, if the public and its leaders were willing to respect the principles that most social scientists already agree upon. They do not even do that. Thus they bring needless misfortunes down on their heads and on their children's heads. Then they blame the economists and other social scientists. Being human, the social scientists are not blameless, of course. But they are far less at fault than contemporary bromides and clichés would indicate.

PROWLING FOR CAMPUS PRESIDENTS¹

By DIXON WECTER

Huntington Library

Soon after V-J Day the rumor ran that every four-star general in the field was under scrutiny by at least one university in search of a president. Battle heroes used to become Chief Executives of the nation, as witnessed by the yield of every war up to 1917-1918, when the tradition faltered. (Major Truman, first khaki veteran to sit in the White House, hardly owes his place to martial glamour.) But today, despite high public favor for one elusive hero of the Second World War, the expectations of even a very popular general rarely go beyond becoming president, lower case, in an executive chair over which the laurel and ivy intertwine.

Everybody recalls the example of General Lee's retirement to the shades of Washington College. Indeed, in the South, among campuses not having that other regional penchant for clergymen, ribbons and brass wield more presidential persuasion than, say, in the Middle West. Thus Louisiana State University—whose first head, by the way, was William Tecumseh Sherman, 1859-1861—eight or nine years ago turned over a new leaf, after the soiled book-keeping of an embezzler from the Long regime, by appointing in his place the late Major General Campbell Hodges. Nor has the Navy been overlooked. In 1945 the University of South Carolina found a new commander in Rear Admiral Norman M. Smith. Last year the most picturesque naval hero of our times, Admiral Halsey, was engaged by the University of Virginia—not as president, a post filled by ex-Governor Darden, nor rector, an eminence held by ex-diplomat Edward Stettinius—but as public-relations officer in charge of fund-raising.

The logic of hero-into-president is not hard to follow. Among the smaller old-fashioned institutions, the experience of those who

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have commanded young men is thought fitting, since "prexy" is regarded as a kind of disciplinarian and father surrogate. ("Dear President X," a fond mother is said to have written, "will you see that my son John, a member of the freshman class, is drinking his daily quart of milk?") In the big cosmopolitan university, on the other hand, contact between president and student body is limited almost wholly to signing diplomas. But such an institution can well be conceived as a multiple operation, whose essence is efficient coordination—possibly like the deployment of an army group or fleet. And (some will add) with the occasional object of enfilading the ranks of alumni and men of property with a brisk fire of publicity and solicitation. Furthermore, various traits helpful to the successful officer—commanding physique and other intangibles of leadership, clean-cut personality, self-confidence, a certain toughness of hide and soul—tend also to mark the civilian executive, to which hero worship of the soldier joins a further advantage.

To generalize about generals is rash; the best of them remain individuals rather than types. Lee seems to have made a fair president at Lexington, his stiffness tempered by kindness, his innocence aided by group sentiment. Among personalities of the last war, Columbia University has taken the pick. President Eisenhower is suited to his new rôle less by reason of long military schooling than because his basic instincts appear so reassuringly civilian. Apparently a middle-of-the-road liberal, with an alert mind and engaging grin, he stands in no danger of confusion with such familiar West Point types as the bristling fire-eater, old fuss-and-feathers, engineering martinet, or military shogun. What he learned in directing the greatest operations ever carried out in mechanized warfare bears less upon the academic scene than his astonishing record in arbitrating rivalries more deadly than anything he will ever meet on Morningside Heights. Otherwise he is largely an unknown.

Columbia and its milieu are both complex. Anglophile Nicholas Murray Butler delighted to compare his institution with the British Commonwealth of Nations. Eisenhower becomes far less a potentate than a prime minister, among faculties that are extraordinarily autonomous, so that what he happens not to know about routine collegiate administration cuts little ice. To speak of Butler, the

muse of historic irony cannot help contrasting the late firm denial of the Draft Eisenhower movement from both sides with the wistful prolonged availability of the old doctor. ("Pick Nick for a Picnic in November" was offered the unimpressed public back in 1920.) As the most sought-after American of the hour, Eisenhower will win the university friends and influence donors, and this is frankly expected. A wag's description of Columbia as "cloisters on the half shell" brings to mind the steady wash against its walls of a vast metropolis—a community which the UN has now invested with the status of world capital, adding to the presidency of its greatest university an international dimension that Butler would have been the first to relish. Before his trustees the president of Columbia sits in the historic chair of Ben Franklin, perhaps a symbol that versatility is of the essence. From the Battle of the Bulge to the battle of the budget is no impossible transfer.

Campuses are always on the prowl for presidents. The first shall be last, in security of tenure, and we are told that the average term of office these days—what with trustee disagreements, irate alumni, local politics, restiveness, stomach ulcers, and hyper-tension—is less than five years, in contrast to the calm half-century harvest of a Butler or Kirkland. A hearty extrovert, with steady nerves, speechmaking stamina, and an infinite tolerance for dining out, seems well-nigh indispensable; otherwise the pace proves almost as killing as in the White House, though most casualties choose resignation to death in harness. And the president's wife is a subject in herself; her social endurance must match her husband's, although it is generally granted that her gifts of wit and beauty had better inspire the lightest touch of sympathy rather than envy.

II

To speak of trends in presidential types is not easy. The past month, for example, saw two major appointments seemingly in contrary directions: Harold Stassen to the University of Pennsylvania and Detlev W. Bronk from a deanship on the same campus to Johns Hopkins. The latter choice is more traditional: an able, hard-working specialist in medical physics, lacking political glamour and small talk, to head a university whose abiding glory even in its present

dignified wane lies in its medical school. Within the past year or two other institutions with a strong scientific bent like Washington University in St. Louis, Rice Institute in Houston, California Institute of Technology, and the Institute for Advanced Study have found captains among the physicists—a tribute, whether conscious or not, to that research which now holds cosmic forces of life and death in the hollow of its hand. Two of our biggest state universities, Wisconsin and Texas, have called presidents from their biology departments.

The choice of Mr. Stassen is more speculative. His impressive physique, vitality, liberal conservatism, and much-publicized spokesmanship for youth are among the assets. The University of Pennsylvania, with its problems of endowment and coordination, stands to benefit by his skill as public-relations officer and organizer, while its solid rather than exciting traditions may demand an energizer. Qualities that made him a good vote-getter will probably make him a successful gold-getter. Penn's experiment in picking a career politician will be watched with national interest.

Does the diverted aspirant for high public office mark the latest in executive models? The also-ran of tomorrow, instead of being rowed up Salt River, may be chaired in triumph to Old Siwash. Stanford and other large universities now in quest of a chief might do well to await results of the November elections. One remarks a certain logic here also. Chancellor Hutchins shrewdly observes that the modern university administrator bears little resemblance to the business executive—since his staff members enjoy superior freedom, responsibility, and tenure—but rather to the political leader, who works perforce in a more democratic medium, by consultation and persuasion. (The late President Eliot once met a difficult decision by saying "It would be wiser for me first to consult a colleague." The precisian paused a moment and added: "No, *not* wiser—more polite.") Mr. Hutchins goes on to state that the university chief is additionally handicapped in power, since he lacks the leverage of party and patronage. This point seems to me more debatable, since it is possible to build an academic machine for dealing out pressures, promotions, and rewards to the faithful about as reliable as those mechanisms patented under labels like Hague, Crump, and Grundy.

Life-members in the teaching guild often feel vaguely outraged by the elevation of an outsider like Mr. Stassen to the helm of a major university—akin to ranklings once stirred in the breasts of library-school graduates by Archibald MacLeish's accession as librarian of Congress. A few months ago the provost emeritus of the University of California, Monroe Deutsch, penned a warning against the trend toward nonacademic presidents.¹ One who has never taught a class, never earned advanced degrees nor done research, declared the provost, cannot help passing many snap judgments, and uttering public views on education which represent an effort either to bluff with a pair of treys or else to employ cards that others have privily put up one's sleeve. Educational leadership, he added, is a much scarcer commodity than administrative talent—which can be bought on the open market in the shape of a vice president in charge of finances, a reliable comptroller, or business manager. The late Walter A. Jessup in his last report as head of the Carnegie Corporation noted anxiously that "managerial ability rather than educational leadership is the chief consideration in the selection of academic presidents." If with James Burnham we believe that the managers will inherit the earth, then this belongs to a basic drift. At all hazards we have here a dilemma more fundamental than that which used to agitate alumni in the ivy league, whether to pick a true son of alma mater or an outlander.

Changing patterns in presidents reflect changes in the universities themselves. In colonial days, when colleges like Harvard and Yale were planted largely to train young ministers, their typical head was a divine. The first incumbent of President Eisenhower's seat was the Rev. Samuel Johnson, of President-elect Stassen's chair another Episcopalian, the Rev. William Smith. Yet they were hardly more of a consistency than modern executives. Thus while Dr. Johnson turned out a sober scholar and great idealistic philosopher, his Philadelphia peer proved himself a better orator and cash-raiser, but not wholly an ornament to the cloth and the gown. Dr. Benjamin Rush, who knew him well, reported that "his person was slovenly and his manners awkward and often offensive in company. . . toward the close of his life an habitual

¹ "Choosing College Presidents," Autumn, 1947 *Bulletin of American Association of University Professors*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3, pp. 520-524.

drunkard . . . when angry he swore in the most extravagant manner." Ordination offers no infallible insurance against plucking a lemon.

But the clerical shepherd has long endured. Out of the 288 pre-Civil War college heads on record, no less than 262 were ordained clergymen, stated Boston University's President Daniel Marsh in 1944 at the inauguration of Russell Cole as head of Cornell College—after observing, in oblique tribute to both, that "all other things being equal, the best possible preliminary training for a college or university presidency is experience in the ministry." In Texas, Baylor University in 1948 chose a preacher as president for the first time in two generations, while its neighbor Southern Methodist University earlier made a like choice, and in 1946 Vanderbilt tapped a divinity-school dean. By tradition, it seems to me, the clergyman as a type has made a worthy though seldom very stimulating president, prone to lack intellectual venturesomeness, though well fitted by occupational training (if one may so phrase it) as a mendicant friar—like Princeton's revered President Witherspoon, who loved to go on what he called "foraging expeditions."

III

With wane of the cleric in the post-Appomattox era came the golden day of scholar-presidents and educational statesmen: Harvard's Eliot, Cornell's White, Hopkins' Gilman, Columbia's Barnard, Michigan's Angell, Chicago's Harper, Stanford's Jordan, and others. Several were brilliant research men, nearly all had been inspired preceptors, and every one had come up from the classroom and still would gladly teach as administrative time permitted. All became outstanding leaders and philosophers of education—not holding identical views, to be sure, but each with a grasp of first principles that gained him a respectful hearing before the whole world of learning. As a group they were the best stand of presidential timber we have grown.

But with bigger if not better universities the ripe scholar lost ground to the crack administrator and the executive type—sometimes an academic hybrid, like a commerce-school dean—surrounding himself with an atmosphere frankly imitative of Big Business.

As a curious development, within the past few months two educational institutions—the University of Southern California and Olivet College—have chosen experts in radio law, while Ohio Wesleyan selected the U. S. Civil Service Commissioner. The executive type in turn shades off into the public-relations mouthpiece, efficiency expert, or glorified manager, charged with a university of ten to twenty thousand students and many separate schools—the whole committed as irresistibly as a spiral nebula to a policy of indefinite expansion in size and intricacy, often with corresponding dissipation of strength and quality.

Today the lack of a philosophy of education results in no little vagueness and indecision about the whole duty of a university president. And as a substitute for clarity of aims we offer a proliferation of managerial functions: more and more vice presidents talking into more dictaphones, deans, committees, questionnaires, files, hierarchies of paper work and of responsibility. One itches for the pruning knife called "Occam's Razor." Visitors from English and European universities—where the head executive officer serves by rotation, and stress falls less heavily upon personal government—are apt to find our campuses administration-ridden. They contrast the relaxed and rather haphazard *modus operandi* of their institutions, a heritage no doubt from medieval days when students hired and fired their own faculty and could even pick up their universities and set them down elsewhere (as somebody has said) "like itinerant peddlers." The Old World university system (now buried deep under two world wars) has many aspects not at all admirable, but its casual attitude toward organization may serve as a healthy antidote.

In the modern president's life the centrifugal pull away from education is so strong—into finance, public relations, endowment drives, civic works, innumerable speeches on subjects like "Forestry Faces the Future" or "The Challenge of Nursing in the Atomic Age," (all generally ghost-written)—that unless his roots go deep into the educational subsoil he will find himself becoming everything but an educator. The outsider as president is prone to succumb more readily, too often finding not only his speech writing vicarious but also his knowledge of teaching, his administration through channels, his scholarship, and, thanks to the demands of travel, even his

physical presence. Unless he fights manfully against the drift, the president is apt to become more a symbol than a reality. The man of long academic conditioning has a better chance, and statesmanship in the president's chair today is certainly not unknown. Among the thirty Rhodes Scholars who are or have been college and university heads, for example, the quota of intellectual leaders has been gratifying. And from our oldest university President Conant often speaks wisely and well about the architecture of the higher learning in America. Although I have grave misgivings about some internal policies and politics which Mr. Hutchins has pursued at Chicago, in fairness I must add that among his generation he has been conspicuous for grasping boldly the nettle of educational theories, and in approaching world affairs through the avenues of education rather than attacking them by the ambush method or diversionary sally popular with some campus orators.

IV

The larger state university tends to produce a presidential type of its own—the arbiter of administrative complexities, the liaison officer between his institution and the people of the state and legislature—that at its best is admirable. President Robert Gordon Sproul of the University of California administers with sure skill its eight campuses (not counting Los Alamos), staff of 12,000, student body of 41,000, and annual budget of almost fifty millions. No scholar himself, he has what it takes to run the world's largest university, including a long apprenticeship to university finance, a knack for saying just the right word in a booming voice built for open-air theatres, a keen mind in a tireless body, a politician's gift as mixer and memorizer and persuader of legislators, a lifelong educator's championship of free speech and democratic procedure yet a Republican allegiance soothing to the excitable. To paraphrase Doctor Boteler's well-known observation on the strawberry, God doubtless could have made a better president of the University of California than Robert Sproul, but doubtless God never did.

Among state universities and elsewhere, a sprinkling of top research men sometimes become presidents, but find it impossible to carry on their investigations. Occasionally, having set their hand

to the plow they look back—as is happening with President Herbert Davis in his resignation from Smith. The majority grow reconciled to the new life with its undoubtedly rewarding tasks, excitements, contacts, sense of power, and better salary. Universities do well not to cut short the career of a great creative mind in either the humanities or sciences by cajoling him into administration. But a fair scholar and teacher is he who best understands a workshop of higher learning. Further demand for the nonacademic president will drive still deeper the cleft between “practical” type and professor, the so-called man of action and the man of thought about which cartoonists of the New Deal made so much. (Wool-gathering, ineptitude, and time-wasting are popularly imputed to the tribe of professors, and after many a long faculty or committee meeting I have been tempted to own the impeachment, until I recalled certain contacts through the years, frequently among trustees, with the costive legal mind and the frivolous business mind at work.)

Beyond doubt the generation of great savant-presidents is in eclipse, and sometimes the darkness lours thickly. Not long ago a friend of mine assisted at an academic gymkhana called “Scholarship Day” at a big university nationally known for its football stars and Olympic athletes, and heard the president—a handsome white-maned old gentleman who looked every inch a college head in the cinema—open the convocation with the impressive words, “Here at the University of Philistia we have one day in the year which is dedicated to—*scholarship!*”

A flair for raising money seemingly is as necessary for a president’s complete success as a winning team to the coach. Shrinking interest rates, plus inflated costs and the academic housing shortage, whet the sense of urgency. The nearing close of the GI Bill and the postponement of Federal aid to education mean that many colleges and universities will soon be running strictly on their own again. They have accumulated the momentum of recent years but now find themselves hurtling off a paved highway onto a dirt road. Since the war’s end a half-dozen leading universities and hosts of small ones have organized endowment drives. The prospect is none too promising. The golden age of Harkness and Sterling has yielded to the silver age of minor philanthropy at

bargain rates, in the shadow of the taxgatherer's sickle. Baby-kissing among the affluent will consume more and more of a president's time. Hence the continued temptation to cast a political or public figure in this rôle. Curiously enough, however, the greatest money-raisers in collegiate history have not been hard-headed business men or martial heroes in mufti, but scholars whose eyes held the misty communicable glint of vision, like James Rowland Angell and Robert A. Millikan. It is the great idealist in education who, at his best, can charm the birds off the trees and pipe the dollars in his wake.

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V

The evolution of the big American university and of the university that aspires to bigness—the heightened complexity, structural hierarchies, blind drive toward expansion, somewhat lagging finances—supplies the clue to this growing choice of executives who have made their mark in other fields than education. And we must reckon, of course, with our mass theory of versatility, the national penchant for transposing success from one key into another—a job whose honorific character the public chiefly glimpses.

The power to make such decisions lies effectually with boards of trustees. Of course as soon as the office falls vacant, a faculty committee is appointed to make recommendations. At first it takes itself very seriously, compiling lists of eligibles that may run to a hundred names, writing letters and exploring minds, trafficking in gossip and hush-hush, ill concealing blushes of personal availability, and busily scouring the country with the air of a Boy Scout's reconnaissance. But the real decision is reached one day in a smoke-filled board room. Now trustees or regents in general are men of great good will but comparative ignorance about the daily workings of the institution they hold in trust. Perhaps necessarily they live in a world of hearsay, multiple mirrors, casual impressions, and the reverberations of publicity. They are apt to be busy citizens, with a sincere but fitful concern—at calendar intervals—for the college or university. The president himself will find relative safety in their numbers, since the power of each

trustee is thereby diluted and the unanimity behind a ukase more remote. But if they are few and propinquitous, he is likely to imagine their hot breath down his neck until he develops slightly neurotic symptoms. And it goes without saying that to him they will always seem unpredictable. Among trustees the ideal is neither bored to slumber nor overzealous in his job—for the too enthusiastic trustee, often an alumnus who never grew up, can burgeon on any campus into an outright menace.

Trustees of the larger universities are apt to be bankers, railroad and shipping magnates, newspaper owners, insurance executives, corporation lawyers. Such boards have always included men of property. This circumstance, so sinister to the eyes of Upton Sinclair, should be accepted as one of life's realities. For the majority are not devils, but potential angels. Yet I venture to guess that a study of earlier eras in American education would reveal a higher ratio than today of bishops and other ministers, physicians, educators, and citizens of inherited means with tastes of the gentleman scholar. Such a mixed complexion would assure better balance than the average board of today—which tends naturally to favor a candidate made in its own image, at any rate talking the same language, or else a Big Name. Least fortunate of all is the attitude whereby a minority of trustees regard the president along with his professors as "hired men." Inevitably they smile upon the candidate whose concept of his office resembles Admiral Dewey's toward the Presidency, who (in his famous interview in 1900) thought that all the Chief Executive had to do was to take orders. Not long ago the regents of a state university who had slugged it out for four years with a president of independent mind, fired him, and at last filled his place with a colorless zoologist who as acting head had passed his obedience test *summa cum laude*.

This is probably the worst recommendation any aspirant can offer. For the president of a university, in all his multifarious acts—as consultant with the trustees, elder brother to the alumni, comrade of the faculty, father to the students—must display unflinching courage, or his office becomes a farce. In its lack the really vital decisions are impossible. While a college president can and must delegate responsibilities, in the last analysis he cannot delegate consequences. To be deflected or cowed by criticism, op-

position, slander, or mere expediency is to fail—and fail as ignobly as in any arena known to public life. Of course in sectors of debatable opinion, in dealing with minor matters and with personalities, tact and prudence are obvious needs; but upon first principles the president cannot afford to compromise. I think of my old friend George Norlin, late president of the University of Colorado: how back in 1924 he grimly battled a Klan-elected governor who had informed him that the then-impoverished campus might write its own appropriation bill if Jews and Catholics were purged from the faculty; how nine years later, when Norlin found himself Roosevelt Professor of History at the University of Berlin during the spring after the Nazis came to power, he spoke his mind from the lecture platform with incredible audacity.

The worth of valor can hardly be exaggerated, not only because the president has to serve as chief watchdog of intellectual freedom on his campus, but because he speaks *ex officio* as one of the few oracles still held in considerable popular respect by our irreverent civilization. He symbolizes the dignity and integrity of his university, and is assumed to be a little freer from partisanship and opportunism than the common run. He is a defender of the faith among free and thinking men. If a university president accepts this prime obligation, cultivates broad understanding if not scholarship, and keeps within himself a climate of serenity and justice, it matters not too gravely whether he knows all about cost accounting, has a winsome microphone manner, or started his professional career as instructor, bank messenger, or shavetail.

THE MODERN MARTYR

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The proposition that all things, animate and inanimate, have a beginning, a development, and a conclusion has only partial validity in the opinion of scoffers when applied to the case of the "modern martyr." We use this term to designate, in particular, the research scholar, but by extension apply the term, as fellow travelers on the *via dolorosa*, to the makers of text-books, and to authors of critical, expository, or controversial articles written for publication in nonpaying scholarly or professional journals. The critics of the modern martyr hesitatingly grant him a pathological beginning, willingly concede him a pitiable conclusion, but are reluctant to accord him much development. Perhaps he deserves the frowns of those who champion academic dilettantism, but then again perhaps he doesn't. He may often coordinate, as did the master dilettante of this century, Anatole France, the spirit of scholarship and the synthesis of the contemporary. Again, he may be nothing more than a Don Quixote of the footnote. But even so, he deserves admiration for his relatively gratuitous and disinterested pursuit of information in a commercialized civilization. His responsibility becomes all the more grave now that his co-worker in the physical sciences has become the unwilling martyr of his discoveries. Some day the world may indeed cease entirely to be interested in what the superficially callow unwisely call useless information and may set its course only by the compass of practical utility. But our purpose in this paper is not to offer an apologia of scholarship or to indulge in jeremiads about the future of the world; it is to paint the miseries of the modern martyr and to invoke sympathetic admiration for his endurances, perseverances, and sacrifices.

This prologue raises the curtain on a drama whose action and development follow somewhat the conventional arrangement of a

five-act play with perhaps an epilogue: *Conception, Incubation, Composition, Publication, Reaction.*

II

Conception. A research or authorial headache may be as mysterious in stealthy intrusion as a migraine. The victim may be carrying on a perfectly normal dinner conversation with his wife or guests at the time of conception. The symptoms are varied, but usually they take the form of a sudden dissociation. A film resembling that of the reserve lid of a frog coats the eye, the answers to questions register a disconcerting pause for the interlocutor and an unconscious but nonetheless distinct irritation seems to belabor the previously attentive and smilingly solicitous dinner companion. The day following such a dissociation as the one described, a friend apologized for abruptly leaving the table. The hostess thought her food had made him sick! "An idea for a study suddenly occurred to me last night at dinner," he explained. "I just had to jot it down while it was fresh in my mind. I hope you understand." I understood, but I don't think the hostess ever did.

A few years ago I was having coffee with a group of colleagues in a university town of the Middle West. The conversation pivoted boisterously on football prospects with everyone having his say. Of a sudden the most animated of the group slumped in his chair and stared vacantly at the hot-dog warmers. "Don't you agree with that, Ed?" Now Ed had left this world and had not the slightest notion of what he was supposed to be in agreement with.

"Certainly! you are right. I agree. Excuse me. I'll see you at lunch."

Ed didn't realize he had agreed that his favorite football coach was the lousiest in the conference, and we didn't see him at lunch. A day or two later I saw Ed in the library reference room. He said he was tracking down the possible French sources of Shakespeare's idea about the world being a stage and men but players on it. He had conceived the idea in the middle of small talk on sports.

The so-called absent-minded professor is in a state of abstraction, not distraction, in the opinion of Anatole France. But in

reality it may be neither abstraction nor distraction but conception which causes the martyr in embryo to cross the campus unseeing, to search the office for the glasses on his nose, to drive his car through a stop light, to leave the house without telling his wife good-bye, or to sit beside a neighbor on a bus for several blocks without knowing it.

Cognizant conception, although less distracting because directed awareness tempers the shock, can be just as emotionally disturbing as intuitive conception. A martyr once told me that on the same day he read an M.A. thesis on Charles Brockden Brown and some of Poe's stories. The analysis of one of Brown's novels, including some quotations from it, suggested a kinship in certain details and episodes with one of Poe's tales. Having never read any of Brown's works, he passively noted the analogies as curious coincidences and would never have thought of the matter again if the candidate, in the course of the examination, had not mentioned that Poe owed his pit scene in "The Pit and the Pendulum" to Brown. He said his heartbeat went into high, that his face flushed, and that he hardly heard what was said after that. If Poe had borrowed from Brown for "The Pit and the Pendulum," he could have borrowed from him for the story that he had read. Like all martyrs in the humanities who conceive, whether intuitively or cognizantly, he went straight to the library as soon as he could. It is here that the curtain rises on Act II of the drama of the modern martyr.

III

Incubation. Of the various definitions which Webster gives for the word, the medical one seems tailor-made for our purposes: "The development of an infectious disease from inception to visible manifestation." The "brooding or brooding upon" definition has its applicable points too. Incubation, unlike the inception or conception, which numbs the victim at first, is characterized by a generally sustained exhilaration during the stage considered here (research and note-taking) of the "development . . . to visible manifestation." It is true, of course, that visible manifestation does not always follow conception. The bibliographical search—the heart-in-the-throat period if you think you have something hot—

may reveal that others had conceived and delivered before you were born. Or the idea itself when passed through the sieve of preliminary investigation may leave no residue of substance. Our interest here, however, centers on active and successful incubation, not on infructuous or abortive hunches.

In the incubative stage the growing martyr rustles about in the library thrilling to the lure of the supporting evidence which accumulates on cards, in notebooks, and manila folders. The exciting jar of the new stimulus, as love in the early stages of courtship, still holds the promise of fecund expectation and gratifying result. There is a spring in his step deriving from a sense of accomplishment. He exudes an exuberance whose animating qualities may lead his students and colleagues to suspect the generosity of a deceased relative, his chairman and dean to believe that he is about to receive an offer, and his wife to conjectures of a most feminine kind.

But the day comes when the bulging pregnancy of the filled notebooks and files of cards sets in active motion the "brooding upon" phase, which, during the research and note-taking, has been subordinated to the shadowy rôle of a parasitic fellow traveler. The first stage of "development...from inception to visible manifestation," described here as the period of preparation and preliminary "brooding upon," is complete. Within the mass of notes, rebellious to discipline, the author already senses the defeat of his urge to perfection and sees the outline of the martyr's crown. And he sees clearly, for the metamorphosis of conception-incubation into the visible manifestation of orderly composition is normally a labor of pain.

IV

Composition. It has been our discouragement to know authors who, like Emile Zola, had the knack of authorial alchemy thoroughly mastered. The bundles of notes for these happy few seem to fall effortlessly and properly into mostly faultless paragraphs exemplifying the neat virtues of unity, coherence, and emphasis. They sit imperturbably in their cubicles, carrells, offices, or studies and shuffle their notes into sentences with methodical tranquillity.

On these lords of scholarship and of words, the fingernails grow to mandarin lengths and to them the dyspeptic burp is unknown. They do not belong to the fraternity of Flaubert or Mallarmé. For them the *mot juste* and the white page hold no terrors. They do not suffer the martyrdom which overtakes the average writer when he comes to grips with his idea and notes.

The first day the martyr may engage only in wary skirmishes. He needs to knit his moral energies together, so he confines his activities to fingering his notes, to sharpening his pencils, to verifying a reference, to going out for coffee, to interrupting some other martyr, to chewing his fingernails, and to a certain amount of escape in reverie.

Whenever it is that he does get something on paper, whether the next day or the next week, he commits himself irrevocably to days, weeks, or months of anguish. The spring goes out of his step, the luster from his eye, convincing cordiality from his greeting, and zest from his appetite.

The uninitiated are likely to see alarming symptoms of physical and psychical decay in the martyr's behavior pattern. The campus psychologists may be extremely cordial in frequent invitations to coffee. Campus gossip may speculate on the harmony of his marital or departmental relations. And the martyr's students may make such comments as: "The old boy seems to be losing his grip;" "I used to think he was a pretty good joe;" "He looks about ready for the fatigue suit;" "I wonder if he's having trouble with his wife!" Now his wife is the only one who gets any comfort at all out of the martyr's martyrdom. In the first place, she knows that her suspicions are groundless, and in the second place that she need not worry about meals. In his creative stupor, he will nibble on everything without eating much of anything, and whatever he does eat will give him indigestion; so she cleans the cupboards of slow-turnover comestibles and just keeps the soda and Alka Seltzer handy.

Time passes and somehow, somehow, the article or book gets written. One day the erstwhile untouchable upsets the crystallizing interest in his disintegration by an unexpected temporary return to normalcy. While for the uninitiated this sudden resurgence of personality may be most baffling, for the initiated it holds

no mysteries. They know that the martyr has finished his composition, and that he is fattening his ego *pro tem* on the snug complacency of manuscriptitis. They visualize him soulfully rereading his manuscript, delicately juggling protruding pages into neat rectangular symmetry, and fondling its contour with amorous sensuousness. Editors have not yet ruffled his confidence in its merits, and the umbilical relationship of the creator to his creation is still too recent to inject the virus of detached self-criticism. But the initiated know that the martyr's crown which he saw in the pregnant notes and whose thorns spurred his head as he wrote is only temporarily replaced by the halo of satisfaction. The martyr, if a veteran of martyrdom, knows it too, but he chooses with unconscious firmness to relax on the landing and to obey the *carpe diem* wisdom of the poets before reshouldering the cross for the ascent to the refined regions of martyrdom which he knows await him in the offices of the editors and publishers.

V

Publication. The rookie candidate for the martyr's crown, cocky with confidence in the merits of his manuscript, usually reacts to the sting of the rejection slip like a cucumber vine to the sting of a venomous beetle. Collapsed in a wilted slump, he atomizes dejection in terms perfumed with melancholy bitterness; and for a time he may dream of a turnip patch in the Ozarks. He is beginning to learn that getting something published is an upstream swim. I have known young aspirants to the fraternity of the printed word whose egotism never recovered from the deflation of the first rejection slip. They lack the martyr's ingredients: footnote faith, moral masochism, and the urge to dyspeptic self-immolation. But let us abandon the martyr-failure and the martyr-neophyte, whose triumphs and miseries, although deserving of the most attentive and sympathetic consideration, offer in reality but a marginal interest, and return to the veteran martyr and his finished manuscript. We know that the ambitious neophyte will in time become the habitual martyr, whose calvary we are describing, and that the martyr-failure will find suitable rationalizations in the ivory tower of "I could, but what's the use," or in the practical wisdom of instinctive good sense.

The seasoned martyr has prepared his manuscript according to the manual of style of the publication or publishing house to which he plans to send it. As he puts the child of his travail in the mails, he speculates dubiously on the virtues of rugged individualism whose anarchistic application in the kingdoms of editing and publishing has been for him a form of expensive tribulation. If dictator for a day, he would couple his decree abolishing Greek French-fried potatoes with one giving the editors and publishers a choice between agreement on a uniform style manual or decapitation. Only the multiplied griefs of refootnoting and retyping his manuscripts could drive a fundamentally mild man like our martyr to such dictatorial and homicidal reflections.

The experienced martyr is too smart to keep a stop-watch record of the time between mailing his manuscript and getting it back. Like a provident squirrel which buries acorns and nuts during the fall for disinterment in winter, the martyr keeps a supply of research problems well buried in his notebooks for exhumation as soon as the finished manuscript leaves his hands. He believes in the wisdom of the apocryphal saying (and all neophyte candidates for martyrdom would do well to heed its advice) that a writer, for the sake of his morale, should always keep a manuscript in the mail. A hoary-headed martyr, who had been ill for a few months, once remarked in my presence: "I don't have a single manuscript in the mail. I have an old one which has been rejected several times already, but I am going to send it out again as confidence insurance until I have completed the one I am now doing." The manuscript in the mail nourishes the perseverance of the martyr with a hope and faith akin to that of the lottery holder in his ticket.

But the martyr can seldom engage his energies in his new project to the point that he forgets the manuscript doing battle on the editor's desk. With the startling suddenness of Proust's sensation remembrance visitations, currents of pessimism surge intermittently from subconsciousness to consciousness, and he is tortured in his mind and in his stomach. Sometimes his pessimism proceeds cognizantly from such stimuli as (1) recalling that the author of a book he had unfavorably reviewed is the friend of one of the editors; (2) remembering an article by one of the editors whose point of view contradicts that expressed in his own article; (3) fear-

ing that the editor, who is an authority on certain phases of the subject, may discover some error in his study and recommend rejection. If, whipped by this terrifying thought, he decides to re-read his manuscript, he will probably find it cold, dull, uninteresting, and as full of flaws as a freshman theme.

At this stage the martyr usually eases his martyrdom a bit by evoking the publishing miseries of his colleagues. A friend once permitted him to read the bulky correspondence relating to the publication of a book. The two bulky manila folders told a story whose incidence in sleepless nights, dyspeptic discomfort, and moral misery could be divined only by a genius of the broadest intuitive sympathies. The author, it seems, had first reworked his manuscript to the satisfaction of the editor of the series in which his book was to appear. He signed a contract, but months later, instead of proofs, he began to receive reports of readers. The publishers, he discovered, had no confidence in the editor and had submitted his manuscript to four readers. Two of the reports were favorable, but two affirmed with remarkable assurance that he should redo his book, according to their respective recipes. He reached a compromise with the publishers whereby he agreed to make certain changes. In the chain of events, one of the favorable readers reversed his opinion and maintained that the book would be worthless unless his services were accepted as coauthor. Finally, he completed his revisions a second time in a form acceptable to the publishers and again months passed, but instead of proofs he received a letter from the editor saying the manuscript would have to be cut by one-third. This time he asked for and was granted cancellation of his contract. His drama of martyrdom lasted four years!

Our martyr recalls the case of a colleague who spent years doing research on a controversial point of grammatical usage in the Esquimaux language. He succeeded in getting letters from four Academicians and a Nobel prize winner to support the thesis of his study. As a courtesy to them he wrote his article in their language and submitted it to the official publication of the Association of Teachers of Esquimaux in the United States. A few weeks later one of the editors returned it with a cordial letter announcing he was accepting it, but requested him to translate it into English be-

cause, he wrote, "Our Review has a rigid rule against publishing articles in Esquimau by non-Esquimaus." This particular martyr, being a teacher of Esquimau, was so wounded in his nationalistic pride that for a time he violated the objective credo of the martyr, by declaring himself in favor of exterminating them all, including the women and little children. Fortunately, he could indulge in such sentiments without the fear of losing his job, for he was also a teacher of Aztec, and these hospitable people welcomed contributions in their language by all foreigners, including North Americans.

Our martyr also evokes the history of manuscripts which were changed and shortened without consultation with the author. He remembers anecdotes about editors who failed to acknowledge receipt of manuscripts and kept them for a year before returning them. These and other unpleasant reflections start him to chewing on his nails and his stomach to churning. His thoughts squat in black despair on the threshold of the defeated meekness which his wife will know how to utilize properly to her advantage.

The weeks pass, and one day he sees a letter on his desk from the editor. He almost collapses, for the letter without the manuscript must mean unconditional acceptance. For a moment he thinks the kindest thoughts about this editor and concedes him a certain genius. Then he opens the letter. In a kind crispness the editor informs him that his article has possibilities, but needs to be cut to one-half its present length. He is returning the manuscript under separate cover. The letter concludes, "If you care to make the suggested revisions and to return your manuscript to us, I think we can use it in our next number."

The martyr languishes for a few days and nurses his pride. Each word in his article is as important to the structure as a whole as the individual brick is to the house. Why can't the editor realize that? It just can't be telescoped without ruining it. Then one day over a cup of coffee he hears himself telling a colleague that such and such a magazine is publishing his article on such and such! Now he has committed himself irrevocably. It would be unnecessarily repetitious to impose on the reader the woes of our martyr as he sorrowfully unravels his article and reassembles it. By dint of distractions, abstractions, domestic and abdominal dis-

locations, and jerked hair he finally cuts it in half but not without fudging a bit. He was thoughtful enough to have his original manuscript typed in pica type; he has his revision done in elite type. In this way he usually foxes the editors out of a little extra space.

The editor accepts the revision, and in due time he reads and returns the proofs. Surely now our author-martyr, these many hardships passed, can replace his crown of thorns with the laurel wreath and dwell on Mount Olympus forever. Alas! alas!

VI

Reaction. The quarterly Review lies on the martyr's desk. As long as decently possible he will keep it there to show to colleagues and callers in the most casually incidental and by-the-way manner. A few spectators of his authorship will register genuine interest and congratulate him sincerely, but most will cloak their reactions with the poker-faced, air-conditioned indifference of a Monte Carlo croupier. This lack of enthusiasm reopens the eternally tender cicatrixes of our martyr, and unless he is a soul of the "forgive them; for they know not what they do" caliber, he is likely to place the worst possible interpretations on these disciplined verbal restraints.

There are two kinds of fan mail which the martyr (if of the systematic type addicted to permanent records) could file under such rubrics respectively as gratuitous and stimulated laudatory messages. Under the former heading he would classify (or at least keep an open file in optimistic expectation) those messages which diffuse the pure and disinterested perfume of loyal friendship or discerning appreciation for sound scholarship. But the overwhelming majority of his messages properly fall under the heading of "stimulated" laudatory messages. These are received as responses to the reprint stimulus (expensive now since reprints are usually no longer free) and, while lacking the gratuitous freshness of the spontaneously (more or less) engendered message, make nevertheless a *pro tem* contribution to the thermometric equilibrium of the martyr's emotions. There is a third kind of message frustrating to the martyr and which, for want of a better category, he may decide to catalogue under the label of "semi"-laudatory messages. The martyr loves the generous first paragraph of such

letters, deplores the ingenious reservations of the second, and fails to show proper appreciation for the list of misspellings, misplaced commas, and split infinitives, thoughtfully signaled by his correspondent in the third.

While a martyr given to self-analysis may see certain chastening virtues in the reservations of the messages he receives, he can see nothing but conspiring persecution and the crassest ingratitude in the messages he does not receive. His heart may ache with disappointed anguish if his reprint fails to get even a note of acknowledgment from some departmental chairman who has a job that he covets.

It is a moot question whether a martyr prefers the torture of silence to the torture of the critical rejoinder. The latter may inflict the most painful punishment on his pride and even damage his reputation seriously or blight his career entirely. Young hopefuls for martyrdom who have survived the sting of the rejection slip, if unfortunate enough to invite a fierce rejoinder, may become discouraged to the point that they will throw away their paper-clip pledge pins and hate the fraternity forever. Occasionally, however, the ingenious martyr may retrieve his punctured pride by a rejoinder to the rejoinder. This maneuver is too infrequent to tip the scales in favor of the rejoinder, so the controversy promises to go on indefinitely.

The martyr who has authored a book may be (and usually is) in for ten times the grief, both in quantity and in sadistic refinement, of the martyr who has only to worry about gratuitous and stimulated laudatory or semilaudatory messages, or the bull-dog rejoinder. The book-writer martyr offers his sensitive pride as a broadside target to a trigger-happy bunch of book-review marksmen who seldom praise, often criticize, and always review the book he didn't write rather than the one he did. Those who do not praise his book are prejudiced, and those who do could have been more enthusiastic.

But let us return now for a last glimpse of the martyr and his article. He has read it several times and on the whole with satisfaction. It surprises him somewhat to note how little he misses the parts deleted at the editor's suggestion. Perhaps the editors know their business after all. Then he shows his article to his

wife. The loyal realist in his life brutally remarks: "I wonder if it's worth it to go through what *we* did for just five printed pages." And the martyr wonders too.

He sees the road and road-marks to his future calvaries—conception, incubation, composition, publication, reaction—and he knows it is paved with indigestion, heartburn, burps, sleepless nights, and wifely scoldings. At the end he will find neither pot-of-gold nor philosopher's stone. But he knows that he will travel this road again and again and again. Surely the doubters and cynics and scoffers are wrong! This man, "the modern martyr," must be animated by impulses more noble than the dubious rewards of administrative favor or the desire to pad the faculty list-of-publications bulletin!

VII

Epilogue. Fellow martyrs, I have done my best to tell the story of the "infectious disease" which blights our lives from the time it strikes our mental innards until it exteriorizes itself in the "visible manifestation" of the printed word. If you feel it is incomplete, or romanticized in spots, your long experience in suffering will naturally give you every right and every justification to blame the blue pencil of the editor.

The writer sees but one solution to our woes: a new organization with its own publication. We timidly suggest as a title for our group, *The Association of Modern Martyrs of the World*, and as a title for the review, *Martyriana Universal*. The duties of the editor would be limited strictly to acknowledging all contributions in lengthy letters loaded with lyrical congratulations and enthusiastic praise. All manuscripts would be published within six months, in the form in which they were submitted, including misspellings. Hostile rejoinders and unfavorable book reviews would be banned. *Martyriana Universal* would impose but two obligations, both financial: (1) the author would have to pay, at a determined publication cost, for each page of an article of more than thirty pages in length; and (2) agree to mortgage his house, if need be, to make up deficits in years when the prolific visible manifestations of scholarship required frequent special issues. In time, perhaps, activities could be expanded to include book publishing.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS¹

By DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

Columbia University

Never in her long history has any honor come to Columbia greater than that accorded her by this gathering of her friends. No other testimony could more convincingly demonstrate universal respect for this university as a fruitful agent in the promotion of human knowledge and human welfare. Among you are men and women from the learned professions, from the offices of management and finance, from labor unions, from the machines of factories, from the shops of small towns, from the farms and the plain homes of America. No school, narrow in its outlook, fearful of the new, bogged down in sterile allegiance to the past, could provoke such a diverse assembly as is this.

Columbia welcomes you and will record with lasting pride the tribute of your presence.

As I say those words my heart is torn with doubt that they can convey anything of the intensity of my feelings. As I look over this gathering and see hundreds of old personal friends, the men who in the Army and in the armed services and civilian life have stood by my side through the years, members of my family, and all these thousands, who are friends of Columbia, I want my first act as the officially installed president of this institution to be to extend to all of you, on the part of all the officers and students and trustees and myself, a very hearty thank you.

I feel a sense of high personal distinction that I am privileged to participate in this ceremony. If this were a land where the military profession is a weapon of tyranny or aggression—its members an elite caste dedicated to its own perpetuation—a life-long soldier could hardly assume my present rôle. But in our nation the army is the servant of the people, designed and trained exclusively

¹ Address delivered by General Eisenhower on the occasion of his induction into the presidency of Columbia University, October 12, 1948.

to protect our way of life. Duty in its ranks is an exercise of citizenship. Hence, among us, the soldier who becomes an educator or the teacher who becomes a soldier enters no foreign field but finds himself instead engaged in a new phase of his fundamental life purpose—the protection and perpetuation of basic human freedoms.

Today's challenge to freedom and to every free institution is such that none of us dares stand alone. For human freedom is today threatened by regimented statism. The threat is infinitely more than that involved in opposing ideologies. Men of widely divergent views in our own country live in peace together because they share certain common aspirations which are more important to them than their differences. But democracy and the police state have no common purposes, methods, or aspirations. In today's struggle, no free man, no free institution can be neutral. All must be joined in a common profession—that of democratic citizenship; every institution within our national structure must contribute to the advancement of this profession.

II

The common responsibility of all Americans is to become effective, helpful participants in a way of life that blends and harmonizes the fiercely competitive demands of the individual and of society. The individual must be free, able to develop to the utmost of his ability, employing all opportunities that confront him for his own and his family's welfare; otherwise he is merely a cog in a machine. The society must be stable, assured against violent upheaval and revolution; otherwise it is nothing but a temporary truce with chaos. But freedom for the individual must never degenerate into the brutish struggle for survival that we call barbarism. Neither must the stability of society ever degenerate into the enchained servitude of the masses that we call statism.

Only when each individual, while seeking to develop his own talents and further his own good, at the same time protects his fellows against injury and cooperates with them for the common betterment—only then is the fullness of orderly, civilized life possible to the millions of men who live within a free nation.

The citizenship which enables us to enjoy this fullness is our most priceless heritage. By our possession and wise use of it we enjoy freedom of body, intellect, and spirit, and in addition material richness beyond the boast of Babylon. To insure its perpetuation and proper use is the first function of our educational system.

To blend, without coercion, the individual good and the common good is the essence of citizenship in a free country. This is truly an art whose principles must be learned. Like the other arts, perfection in its manifold details can never be attained. This makes it all the more necessary that its basic principles be understood in order that their application may keep pace with every change—natural, technological, social.

Democratic citizenship is concerned with the sum total of human relations. Here at home this includes the recognition of mutual dependence for liberty, livelihood, and existence of more than 140 million human beings. Moreover, since we cannot isolate ourselves as a nation from the world, citizenship must be concerned too with the ceaseless impact of the globe's two billion humans upon one another, manifested in all the multitudinous acts and hopes and fears of humanity.

The educational system, therefore, can scarcely impose any logical limit upon its functions and responsibilities in preparing students for a life of social usefulness and individual satisfaction. The academic range must involve the entire material, intellectual, and spiritual aspects of life.

Underlying this structure of knowledge and understanding is one immutable, incontestable fact: Time and again, over the span of the last 700 years, it has been proved that those who know our way of life place upon one thing greater value than upon any other—and that priceless thing is individual liberty. This requires a system of self-government, which recognizes that every person possesses certain inalienable rights and that rules and regulations for the common good may be imposed only by the ultimate authority of the citizens themselves.

This individual freedom is not the product of accident. To gain and retain it our forefathers have sacrificed material wealth,

have undergone suffering, indeed have given life itself. So it is with us today.

But it is not enough merely to realize how freedom has been won. Essential also is it that we be ever alert to all threats to that freedom. Easy to recognize is the threat from without. Easy too is it to see the threat of those who advocate its destruction from within. Less easy is it to see the dangers that arise from our own failure to analyze and understand the implications of various economic, social, and political movements among ourselves. Here is a definite task for the teacher.

Thus, one danger arises from too great a concentration of power in the hands of any individual or any group: The power of concentrated finance, the power of selfish pressure groups, the power of any class organized in opposition to the whole—any one of these, if allowed to dominate, is fully capable of destroying individual freedom as is excessive power concentrated in the political head of the state.

The concentration of too much power in centralized government need not be the result of violent revolution or great upheaval. A paternalistic government can gradually destroy, by suffocation in the immediate advantage of subsidy, the will of a people to maintain a high degree of individual responsibility. And the abdication of individual responsibility is inevitably followed by further concentration of power in the state. Government ownership or control of property is not to be decried principally because of the historic inefficiency of governmental management of productive enterprises; its real threat rests in the fact that, if carried to the logical extreme, the final concentration of ownership in the hands of government gives to it, in all practical effects, absolute power over our lives.

There are other internal dangers that require constant vigilance if they are to be avoided. If we permit extremes of wealth for a few and enduring poverty for many, we shall create social explosiveness and a demand for revolutionary change. If we do not eliminate selfish abuse of power by any one group, we can be certain that equally selfish retaliation by other groups will ensue. Never must we forget that ready cooperation in the solution of human problems is the only sure way to avoid forced governmental intervention.

All our cherished rights—the right of free speech, free worship, ownership of property, equality before the law—all these are mutually dependent for their existence. Thus, when shallow critics denounce the profit motive inherent in our system of private enterprise, they ignore the fact that it is an economic support of every human right we possess, and that without it all rights would soon disappear. Demagoguery, unless combatted by truth, can become as great a danger to freedom as exists in any other threat.

It was loss of unity through demagogic appeals to class selfishness, greed, and hate that Macaulay, the English historian, feared would lead to the extinction of our democratic form of government. More than ninety years ago he wrote of these fears to the American historian, H. S. Randall. In a letter of May 23, 1857, he wrote, “. . . when a society has entered on this downward progress, either civilization or liberty must perish. Either some Caesar or Napoleon will seize the reins of government with a strong hand; or your republic will be as fearfully plundered and laid waste by barbarians in the twentieth century as the Roman Empire was in the fifth—with this difference, that the Huns and Vandals who ravaged the Roman Empire came from without, and that your Huns and Vandals will have been engendered within your own country by your own institutions.”

The day shall never come if in our educational system we help our students gain a true understanding of our society, of the need for balance between individual desires and the general welfare, and of the imperative requirement that every citizen participate intelligently and effectively in democratic affairs. The broadest possible citizen understanding and responsibility is as necessary in our complex society as was mere literacy before the industrial revolution.

III

¶ It follows, then, that every institution built by free men, including great universities, must be first of all concerned with the preservation and further development of human freedom—despite any contrary philosophy or force that may be pitted against it.

¶ At all levels of education, we must be constantly watchful that

our schools do not become so engrossed in techniques, great varieties of fractionalized courses, highly specialized knowledge, and the size of their physical plant as to forget the principal purpose of education itself—to prepare the student for an effective personal and social life in a free society. From the school at the crossroads to a university as great as Columbia, general education for citizenship must be the common and first purpose of them all.

I do not suggest less emphasis on pure research or on vocational or professional training; nor by any means am I suggesting that curricula should be reduced to the classical education of the nineteenth century. But I deeply believe that all of us must demand of our schools more emphasis on those fundamentals that make our free society what it is and that assure it boundless increase in the future if we comprehend and live by them.

Love of freedom, confidence in the efficacy of cooperative effort, optimism for the future, invincible conviction that the American way of life yields the greatest human values—to help the student build these attitudes not out of indoctrination but out of genuine understanding, may seem to some to be education in the obvious.

Of course, the reverse is true. There is a growing doubt among our people that democracy is able to cope with the social and economic trials that lie ahead. Among some is a stark fear that our way of life may succumb to the combined effects of creeping paralysis from within and aggressive assault from without.

Fear of the future with a concomitant sense of insecurity and doubt of the validity of fundamental principles is a terrible development in American life—almost incredible in the immediate aftermath of America's most magnificent physical and spiritual triumphs. Only by education in the apparently obvious can doubt and fear be resolved.

Here lies a heavy obligation on Columbia University and all her sister schools; unless such fear is banished from our thinking, the sequel will be either the heavy curse of tryannical regimentation or the collapse of our democratic civilization in social anarchy.

Love of freedom, confidence in cooperative effort, optimism, faith in the American way will live so long as our schools loyally devote themselves to a truly liberal education. To assign the university the mission of ever strengthening the foundations of our

culture is to ennoble the institution and confirm the vital importance of its service.

Historical failures in the application of democratic principles must be as earnestly studied as the most brilliant of democracy's triumphs. But underlying all must be the clear conviction that the principles themselves have timeless validity. Dependence by the country upon the schools for this vital service implies no infringement of academic freedom.

Indeed, academic freedom is nothing more than specific application of the freedom inherent in the American way of life. It follows that to protect academic freedom, the teacher must support the entire free system which, among other things, guarantees freedom for all. The teacher's obligation to seek and speak the truth is further safeguarded by university custom and commitment.

There will be no administrative suppression or distortion of any subject that merits a place in this University's curricula. The facts of communism, for example, shall be taught here—its ideological development, its political methods, its economic effects, its probable course in the future. The truth about communism is, today, an indispensable requirement if the true values of our democratic system are to be properly assessed. Ignorance of communism, fascism, or any other police-state philosophy is far more dangerous than ignorance of the most virulent disease.

Who among us can doubt the choice of future Americans, as between statism and freedom, if the truth concerning each be constantly held before their eyes? But if we, as adults, attempt to hide from the young the facts in this world struggle, not only will we be making a futile attempt to establish an intellectual "iron curtain," but we will arouse the lively suspicion that statism possesses virtues whose persuasive effect we fear.

The truth is what we need—the full truth. Except for those few who may be using the doctrine of communism as a vehicle to personal power, the people who, in our country, accept communism's propaganda for truth are those most ignorant of its aims and practices. Enlightenment is not only a defender of our institutions, it is an aggressive force for the defeat of false ideologies.

America was born in rebellion, and rebellion against wrong and injustice is imbedded in the American temper. But whatever

change our rebels of the American past may have sought, they were quick to proclaim it openly and fearlessly, preaching it from the housetops. We need their sort, and here at Columbia we shall strive to develop them—informed, intelligent rebels against ignorance and imperfection and prejudice. But because they have sought the truth and know it, they will be loyal to the American way, to the democracy within which we live. They will never tire of seeking its advancement, however viciously they may be attacked by those content with the status quo. Their loyalty will be enhanced by each day they spend at Columbia.

IV

The American university does not operate in an unreal world of its own, concerned solely with the abstract, secluded from the worrisome problems of workaday living, insulated against contact with those other institutions which constitute our national structure. Just as the preservation of the American way demands a working partnership among 146 million Americans, its continued development demands a working partnership between universities and all other free institutions.

The school, for example, that enjoys a partnership with the manufacturing industries and labor unions and mercantile establishments of its community is a better and more productive school in consequence of its nonacademic associations. Its influence permeates the entire community and is multiplied many times over while the school itself, energized by the challenges and dynamism of community life, grows and broadens with each problem it helps surmount.

Together, the university and the community—the entire record of human experience at their call, able to apply academic, technical, and practical knowledge to the problem, joined in voluntary cooperative effort—together they can analyze and evaluate and plan. By such partnership, it is not too much to hope that the university—losing none of its own freedom, but rather extending its academic horizons—will in time help develop a new freedom for America—freedom from industrial strife.

Partnership is the proof and product of unity. In a free democracy, unity is obtained by our common approach to fundamental principles regardless of even sharp differences with regard to details. A unified America is the greatest temporal power yet seen upon the earth, a power dedicated to the betterment and happiness of all mankind. Columbia shares in that dedication.

Columbia University, like so many others, has been established and is voluntarily maintained and supported by free people. In no other environment could it in the space of two centuries have attained an international stature as a home of learning and research.

Columbia University, consequently, an independent gift-supported institution, free from political and sectarian obligation, will forever be bound by its loyalty to truth and the basic concepts of democratic freedom. It shall follow, then, that Columbia will always be characterized, first, by an undergraduate body of men and women schooled in the broad expanse of human knowledge and humble in their heritage—resolute that they shall pass both on with some increase. From among them will come scholars, executives, statesmen. But Columbia shall count it failure, whatever their success, if they are not all their lives a leaven of better citizenship.

Second, Columbia will be characterized by a graduate body of men and women who, each in his own field, shall advance frontiers of knowledge and use the techniques of science in the service of humanity. From among them will come skilled surgeons, engineers, lawyers, teachers, and administrators, great leaders in every profession and science. But again, we shall count it failure if they, by specialization, become blinded to human values and so ignore their fundamental duty as citizens.

Third, Columbia University has been, is, and will be a dynamic institution as a whole, dedicated to learning and research and to effective cooperation with all other free institutions which will aid in the preservation and strengthening of human dignity and happiness. Our way of life and our university are the flowering of centuries of effort and thought. Men of the ancient world—in Jerusalem and Athens and Rome; men of all epochs, all regions, and all faiths have contributed to the ideals and ideas that animate our

thinking. Columbia University is, and shall continue, both heir of that past and a pioneer in its future increase.

My personal dedication is in the manner of my illustrious predecessors—who in late years have included Seth Low, Nicholas Murray Butler, Frank Fackenthal—to devote my energies to the support of Columbia's able and distinguished faculty, in the service of America, in the service of all humanity. I thank you very much.

SUBVERSIVE OF WHAT?¹

By JULIAN P. BOYD

Princeton University

In 1813 a native of France by the name of Regnault de Bécourt published a book entitled *Sur la Création du Monde, ou Système d'Organisation Primitive*. He and his book would have been forgotten long since if he had not written a letter to the one person in America who, more than any other, was in the habit of buying, reading, and appraising the literature of the past and present—Thomas Jefferson. The title of the forthcoming work intrigued Jefferson. A book on the creation of the world seemed to the great scholar-statesman at Monticello to give promise of being either a geological or an astronomical treatise. He thereupon subscribed for the work, received it in due course, and authorized payment of the two dollars that the book cost.

Authorization of payment involved another Frenchman, a well-known bookseller of Philadelphia by the name of Nicholas Dufief, an ardent bibliophile who had been selling books to Jefferson for more than a decade. Dufief promptly paid Bécourt the two dollars. The transaction was apparently at an end, save only for the fact that Jefferson could not avoid being disappointed in so trivial a work as that of Bécourt, which turned out to be neither a geological nor an astronomical work, but merely an infantile attack on the system of philosophy of Sir Isaac Newton.

But this simple book purchase was very far from being at an end. A few months after Dufief had paid Bécourt the two dollars, the Philadelphia constabulary visited the bookshop and hailed him into court on the charge of vending subversive if not blasphemous literature. Whereupon Dufief in great anxiety and distress appealed to Jefferson, urging him to set the minions of the law right by

¹ Reprinted through the courtesy of the *Atlantic Monthly*, August, 1948, Vol. CLXXXII, No. 2.

informing them that he, Dufief, had not actually sold the book but had merely acted as Jefferson's agent in a financial transaction.

Jefferson of course immediately complied with the urgent request of the bookseller. He stated the facts succinctly and accurately, no doubt satisfying both Dufief and the Philadelphia magistrates. But while this may have been enough for Mr. Dufief, who was interested only in keeping out of the toils of the law, or for the Philadelphia magistrates, who were determined only to safeguard American institutions, it was very far from being enough to satisfy the author of the American philosophy of government.

Jefferson thereupon stated in his own incomparable way the true nature of the issue involved. The issue, as he presented it, was one that made the fact of Dufief's arrest a trivial and irrelevant circumstance. It was an issue as great as the cause of America itself, involving one of the fundamental precepts upon which the philosophy of Jefferson and of his country rested. It was the same issue, indeed, that had earlier called forth the unforgettable declaration that now stands carved upon one of the three great monuments of our national capital: "I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against every form of tyranny over the mind of man." It was the issue to which Jefferson devoted his entire life, invariably upholding the oath he had taken in defense of free inquiry.

"I really am mortified," he declared in his letter to Dufief, "to be told that, *in the United States of America*, a fact like this can become a subject of inquiry, and of criminal inquiry too, as an offense against religion: that a question about the sale of a book can be carried before the civil magistrate. Is this then our freedom of religion? And are we to have a censor whose imprimatur shall say what books may be sold, and what we may buy? And who is thus to dogmatize religious opinions for our citizens? Whose foot is to be the measure to which ours are all to be cut or stretched? Is a priest to be our inquisitor? Or shall a layman, simple as ourselves, set up his reason as the rule for what we are to read, and what we must believe?

"It is an insult to our citizens to question whether they are rational beings or not; and blasphemy against religion to suppose it cannot stand a test of truth and reason. If M. de Bécourt's book

be false in its facts, disprove them; if false in its reasoning, refute it. But, for God's sake, let us freely hear both sides, if we choose. I know little of its contents, having barely glanced over here and there a passage and over the table of contents. From this the Newtonian philosophy seemed the chief object of attack, the issue of which might be trusted to the strength of the two combatants; Newton certainly not needing the auxiliary arm of the government, and still less the holy author of our religion as to what in it concerns him. I thought the work would be very innocent and one which might be confided to the reason of any man; not likely to be much read, if let alone, but if persecuted it will be generally read. Every man in the United States will think it a duty to buy a copy, in vindication of his right to buy, and to read what he pleases. . . .

"But," Jefferson concluded, "it is impossible that the laws of Pennsylvania, which set us the first example of the wholesome and happy effects of religious freedom, can permit these inquisitorial functions to be proposed to their courts. Under them you are surely safe."

Impossible? Dufief was safe, for he had a stalwart champion and the generation that had fought for the great cause of American liberties in the Revolution was still on the scene, still determined to admit no failure of the proposition to which they had dedicated their lives and sacred honor. That proposition was grounded upon the belief that man was innately good rather than evil; that he was endowed by nature with certain indefeasible rights; that, if the yoke of tyranny in every form were removed, man's natural reason and humane instincts would lead him to prefer justice to injustice, equality to privilege, independence of mind to servile obedience to authority, rational judgments to superstition, ignorance, and bigotry; and that, finally, in order to achieve this end and to give mankind full freedom to pursue this course and to govern himself in accordance with its high ideals, it was absolutely essential that every man should have free access to knowledge, unopposed by any barriers that might be erected by any authority.

This was not a new ideal or a new faith. It was what Milton called "the good old cause" and its lineage could be traced through many countries and many ages. But old as it was as an ideal, no government in history had adopted it as a philosophy until

Jefferson and his compatriots brought forth a union indissolubly linked with the cause of liberty.

This philosophy sustained and informed all of Jefferson's private thinking and public acts. But he was too much a realist not to know that mankind had a peculiar susceptibility to folly, superstition, and the easy and comfortable inclination of yielding obedience to authority. He believed mankind capable of progress, but only if men were free to know their rights and privileges. The people must be free to form their own opinions and to exercise their native reason untrammelled by authority.

Jefferson's devotion to the Union and his belief in the people required courage as well as faith. For the issue of liberty versus authority arbitrarily exercised was one that he was obliged to face in the arena of practical politics. In 1798 the party in power, fearful of the threat of foreign ideas and their subversive tendencies, enacted the Alien and Sedition Acts which made it a criminal offense for "brawlers against government" to voice opinions considered dangerous or revolutionary.

Jefferson declared these acts to be as palpably unconstitutional in their infringement of the right of free speech as if Congress had ordered the citizens of the United States to bow down and worship a golden calf. More, he brought forth the Virginia-Kentucky Resolutions, a weapon that he used reluctantly and with caution, for the doctrine of nullification on which these resolutions rested pointed straight toward disunion. But, he must have reasoned, since liberty and the Union were one cause, of what value was the Union if its powers were used to destroy those liberties guaranteed by the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights?

Fortunately, the ultimate recourse to disunion was not necessary. The verdict of the people whose rights Jefferson was defending was an overwhelming verdict. In 1800 those who had attempted to suppress dissent were dispossessed of their offices and their legislative authority. Aiming their blows directly at Jefferson and his supposedly dangerous following, the Federalists succeeded only in committing political suicide and in elevating their most conspicuous enemy to the chief magistracy. A self-confident nation, inspired by the steadfast faith of one who had not separated himself by fear

or distrust from the bulk of his countrymen, had taken heart from his example.

Jefferson recognized the implications of this verdict in his First Inaugural. Many, he knew, had doubted the permanence of the Union and had questioned the ability of the nation to survive such a political revolution as it had just experienced. "I know indeed," he declared, "that some honest men have feared that a republican government cannot be strong; that this government is not strong enough. . . . I believe this, on the contrary, the strongest government on earth." It was strongest, Jefferson meant, in its reliance upon a great ideal lying in the hearts and minds of its people, without which armies and economic power and even constitutions would be valueless.

Nowhere in American annals has this spirit of tolerance of dissent received a more transcendent expression than in these words from Jefferson's great First Inaugural: *"If there be any among us who wish to dissolve this union or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."*

II

The discoveries of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have made it philosophically and historically impossible for us to cling to the absolutes that Jefferson accepted as self-evident. There are no absolutes in the twentieth century—at least we think there are none—and the concept of natural law is no longer accepted as fixed and unchallengeable. Yet, even though we think ourselves justified in discarding as untenable the basic assumption upon which the Jeffersonian philosophy rested, the gravest question that we can ask ourselves is whether we are justified in discarding the system along with its premises. Do we dare discard the rights of man along with the concept of natural law?

The least we can do in attempting to answer this grave question, reaching to the roots of all organized society and its institutions, is to know what it is that we propose to do if we discard both the premise and the conclusion. The least we can do if we engage now in what Jefferson would have regarded as a palpable violation of

individual rights of opinion and conscience is to be conscious of what we are doing and to do it with a full realization of the consequences that may flow from our actions. Have we done this much?

Have we consciously and deliberately come to the conclusion that Jefferson's tolerance of subversive ideas and of disloyal dissent can no longer be justified? If so, on what grounds have we reached that conclusion? Are we doing it in the name of liberty if not of natural law? If so, what kind of liberty? Jefferson would scarcely have understood our use of the term liberty if in its name we attempt to control the way in which men speak or the thoughts which they express or the intellectual investigations which they undertake. He would have called it tyranny and he would have fought it with every resource at his command.

Let us return to Dufief, the bookseller who was anxious to keep out of jail. Jefferson, you will recall, felt that Dufief had nothing to fear under the liberal laws of Pennsylvania. He felt that it was impossible that in the United States of America, founded upon confidence in man's reason and ability to choose the truth, a citizen could be denied the right to purchase a book because of its ideas or arguments, however erroneous, or that a bookseller could be haled before the magistrates because he had sold such a book. But is it impossible for us?

It is not only not impossible or improbable but is indeed an actual and sickening fact. Today, at this moment, both civil and criminal causes are being tried in the city in which Dufief lived. These causes arise largely because of the instigation of an ecclesiastical hierarchy and also of some of those who are supposed to be the direct heirs of that Reformation which established the right of men to judge for themselves in matters of conscience. At this instigation police officers arrested booksellers and seized not one book but two thousand, without compensation, because in the opinion of these self-appointed censors some books were subversive of morals or institutions or were dangerous for other men to read.

The seizure of books, some of them used in college instruction, is only one incident in a mounting demand for conformity. The House of Representatives passed by an overwhelming majority a

bill which would have made Thomas Jefferson liable to imprisonment and fine if he had voiced the opinion in the First Inaugural that I have just quoted—a bill establishing so firmly the dangerous principle of “guilt by association” that it may limit the right to publish books because of the author’s politics or because of the political views expressed.

The preamble of this so-called Subversive Activities Control Act declares its justification to be that of protecting American institutions and the nation itself from infiltration by those who would establish a totalitarian dictatorship. How can we justify so far-reaching a piece of legislation except on the fundamental assumption that the people cannot be trusted to distinguish truth and error?

This bill was sponsored by the House Committee on Un-American Activities. Though it pays lip service to the First Amendment, it is comparable only to the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798, acts which Thomas Jefferson regarded as so subversive, so destructive of everything that the American Union stood for, that he was driven along the pathway toward disunion in his attempt to defeat so gross a violation of individual right.

But this bill and its sponsoring committee are only the larger symptoms of a disease that is epidemic throughout the country. The public press, the great instrument for the protection of our liberties which Jefferson preferred to government itself, has shamefully acquiesced. Not only acquiesced; but, shaken by the fear of a common foe, distrustful of the ability of the people to distinguish between right and wrong, has actually helped to produce the hysteria that would compel uniformity.

Editors have approved tacitly or explicitly the withdrawal of textbooks and the expulsion of teachers whose ideas do not conform to the established economic or political views; they have aided in compelling educators, school boards, trustees, and others to yield to the pressures of unofficial groups that object to dissenting opinion in the realm of economics, politics, or religion. They have committed the ultimate disloyalty to their trust by attempting to command loyalty, overlooking the simple fact that loyalty cannot be commanded but can only be deserved. Educators, editors, librarians, even those scholars who hold, or at least have the re-

sponsibility of defending, the last citadel of civil rights, have all but capitulated to the wave of fear and distrust that is now sweeping over us. Too many have acted the part of Dufief, putting themselves first; too few the part of Jefferson, defending his country's principles at all costs.

III

Just where will this demand for conformity, for unquestioning loyalty, lead? Thomas Jefferson, for one, was certain that it would not lead to human enlightenment, to progress, or to the fullest expressions of reason, justice, and equity toward which our nation directed its early course.

"I join you therefore," he wrote to one of his young protégés after the passage of the Alien and Sedition Acts, "in branding as cowardly the idea that the human mind is incapable of further advances. This is precisely the doctrine that the present despots of the earth are inculcating, and their friends are re-echoing: and applying especially to religion and politics; that it is not probable anything better will be discovered than what was known to our fathers. We are to look backward then and not forward for the improvement of science, and to find it amidst feudal barbarisms and the fires of Spitalfields. But thank heaven the American mind is already too much opened, to listen to these impostures; and while the art of printing is left to us, science can never be retrograde; what is once acquired of real knowledge can never be lost."

But to what advantage, we may ask Jefferson, is the art of printing if what is printed must conform to the established pattern? Of what value is the vaunted public press or our institutions of higher learning, dedicated to the progress of the mind in all fields, when the trustees of the University of Wyoming appoint a committee to examine textbooks for "subversive" material? Of what value is our professed ideal of free education, of the untrammelled pursuit of knowledge, when we acquiesce in the action of the Newark Board of Education which removed certain periodicals from school libraries? What precisely do we mean by liberty as we contemplate the magnates of Hollywood who, in trembling haste, toss sacrifices to a clamoring committee of Congress and beat their

breasts in loud protestation of their innocence of a charge that none but the Un-American Activities Committee could bring against them with a straight face—the charge that they employ revolutionists to prepare their mediocre art?

These are only a few specific incidents and they are taken at random. Every day's news adds to the list and the most thoughtful educators are becoming increasingly concerned with this growing threat to a basic concept of American institutions. It is not without significance that large numbers of professors in our institutions of higher learning have signed petition after petition throughout the country, protesting against the proposed Act of Congress sponsored by the Committee on Un-American Activities. Their petitions have uniformly condemned both the bill and the activities of the committee itself as being subversive of the ideals for which this country has traditionally stood. I think such testimonials cannot be dismissed as the statements of paid hirelings of a foreign totalitarianism. These men have fought Milton's "good old cause" on too many fronts and they have sacrificed too much in the cause of education to be charged with such a calumny. Nor can they be dismissed as theorists, visionaries, and crackpots, unrealistic in their views and out of touch with the world of affairs: for these are the men—some of them at least—who form the chief reliance of this nation in the scientific knowledge which shortened World War II and brought success to American arms.

Responsible heads of the public press who point in commendation to the Committee on Un-American Activities in its shameless pillorying of American citizens and in its flagrant disregard of rights and liberties are either ignorant of the nature and extent of the protest that is beginning to swell or they value suppression more than they value our freedom or they are deliberately misleading their public. In any event, history has proved time and again that the cause they espouse is a shameful and a futile cause. They lack the vision and the courage that led Jefferson in the infancy of our nation to defy any threat in the realm of ideas, not by suppression but by tolerance. They have little faith and in its place they offer what Jefferson declared to be an insult to the American citizenry—the insult of saying in effect that Americans cannot be trusted to read or to understand or to discriminate.

They fear a foreign ideology, unaware of the fact that here at home the liberty that they profess to cherish is in danger of being done to death in the house of friends and with their aid.

I do not impugn the motives of those legislators, editors, educators, and others who have adopted this mistaken course. I do not doubt their devotion to this nation. I do not question their loyalty to the high ideals of a free press. But I do affirm that the methods they have supported in this present issue put them on the side of the enemies of the "good old cause" of Milton and of Jefferson. Those who have adopted this course of compulsory loyalty, though they might disagree with me on everything else, would I think join me in saying that Thomas Jefferson, more than any other single American, can rightfully be regarded as the great spokesman for our ideals and our liberties.

IV

All this, it may very properly be said, is beside the point. Jefferson's agricultural economy, for this nation at least, is a thing of the past, however realistic his philosophy may have been for such an economy at the time he lived. The twentieth century is a century of science and industry and technological power. Under such circumstances, is it not likely that Jefferson would have changed his views, would have given up his eternal values and absolutes as we have given them up, would have recognized the necessity of opposing evil to the utmost limits, however much an individual here and there might suffer?

I think it is undoubtedly true that Jefferson, always a realist and a man of practical statesmanship, would have viewed our problems in the light of our knowledge. Since he was a relativist in a world of absolutes, he would probably be more so in a relativistic world. Though he knew history as few in his generation did, he looked to it for perspective, not for dogmatic authority. He would very likely have regarded it as cowardly of us to look to him as our sole guidance. The earth, he declared, belongs to the living. "Can one generation bind another and all others in succession forever?" he asked. "I think not. The Creator has made the earth for the living not the dead. . . . A generation may bind itself as long as its

majority continues in life; when that has disappeared, another majority is in place, holds all the rights and powers their predecessors once held, and may change their laws and institutions to suit themselves. Nothing then is unchangeable but the inherent and inalienable rights of man." But he also declared that justice is the fundamental law of society and that "the majority, oppressing an individual, is guilty of a crime, abuses its strength, and by acting on the law of the strongest breaks up the foundations of society."

It may be that today, because we have achieved such an excess of power and knowledge beyond our ability to manage, we cannot afford the tolerance and the free flow and interchange and clash of ideas that he advocated. I do not think so. At least, if this is so, the alternative evil to which we must turn in our dilemma is worse than the evil from which we fly, simply because of the vast power now in our hands. But even if this were true, let us be honest. Let us not exercise this power of the majority to suppress the rights of individuals and call it the honored name by which our liberties have come down to us. Let us not call it a free republic whose principles we deny while we commit acts that desecrate its name. Let us frankly, solemnly, and with a full realization of what we are doing and what consequences we may draw from our actions, admit that we no longer believe in the ideals that made us great.

I for one do not fear the outcome. The verdict in the twentieth century will, I believe, be what it was in 1800 and what it was in the Age of the Reformation. I believe with Jefferson that "in every country where man is free to think and speak, differences of opinion will arise from differences of perception, and the imperfection of reason; that these differences when permitted, as in this happy country, to purify themselves by free discussion, are but as passing clouds overspreading our land transiently and leaving our horizon more bright and serene."

But I believe also that we cannot wait complacently on the calm assumption that this will come about through acquiescence or through temporary yielding to pressures of authority or through letting the storm spend itself. It will come about only when, as Jefferson said, "to preserve the freedom of the human mind and freedom of the press every spirit should be ready to devote itself

to martyrdom; for as long as we may think as we will and speak as we think, the condition of man will proceed in improvement."

The alternative that he implied was obvious: deny this freedom, acquiesce in this abridgment of our liberties—and the promise of improvement of the human race would diminish or cease. If, then, the power that we have achieved in the twentieth century, which is nothing less than the power of planetary destruction, is so great as to deny us the rights that have been achieved over the centuries, let us frankly acknowledge that the price of this denial is the loss of our promise of moral and intellectual improvement. It is a price so fearfully exacting as to make man's future one of mere existence and not of destiny. It is a price that mankind has steadfastly refused to pay.

HOW CAN UNESCO CONTRIBUTE TO PEACE?¹

By ARCHIBALD MacLEISH

The question assigned to us here this afternoon is, "How Can UNESCO Contribute to Peace?" It is a precise and unambiguous topic—to anyone, that is to say, but a member of the United States National Commission for UNESCO attending its Fifth Session in Boston, Massachusetts. A member of the National Commission would want to know, "What peace?"

Are we asking what UNESCO can contribute to the firm and lasting peace, founded upon the moral and intellectual solidarity of mankind, which UNESCO, we all believe, will eventually build?

Or are we asking what UNESCO can contribute to the preservation of the precariously balanced, desperately maintained, peace-from-day-to-day which we and all men dread that we may lose?

It is my assumption that we mean, and must mean, the second, the precarious peace. I assume this for two reasons. First, it is precisely the precariousness of the existing peace, rather than any doubt as to the validity of our ultimate hope for peace, which demands an answer from us. Second, the causes of the precariousness of the existing peace are causes which fall exactly and inescapably within the field for which UNESCO, under its Charter, is responsible.

I do not mean to suggest, in saying this, that we should not continue to consider in 1948, what we have been actively considering since 1945—how the true, creative, and lasting peace is to be built. But I do mean that we cannot ignore the more urgent question of UNESCO's responsibility for the preservation of the precarious peace on the foundations of which the lasting edifice—to say nothing of our present lives and living carcasses—must stand if they are to stand at all. You can construct a world on IF if you have

¹ Statement presented to the United States National Commission for UNESCO, September 29, 1948, at the fifth meeting of the Commission, held at the Copley Plaza Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts, September 27-29, 1948.

the intelligence and the courage. You cannot construct so much as a sepulcher on NO.

Mine is not, I realize, a unanimously accepted view. There are those among our colleagues who consider that UNESCO has, and can have, no responsibility whatever in the preservation of the precarious peace, and that the attempt to impose such a responsibility upon it can only end in disaster. They argue with great force that the crisis is immediate and that our methods for dealing with crises are for tomorrow—or for the next generation; that in any case the whole matter is out of our hands and in the hands of the General Staffs and the Foreign Offices; that there is nothing, therefore, which UNESCO can do; and that the attempt to do something would, in consequence, be fruitless and might well be worse—might well bring us all into ridicule and our cherished organization to destruction.

II

These are weighty objections and they have been advanced by men whom I profoundly respect. I owe it, I think, to them and to you to say why they leave me unconvinced.

First, I do not agree that the methods by which understanding between peoples can be advanced—for these are essentially the methods UNESCO can employ—are necessarily slower than the methods by which one people can break another's political or economic back, or destroy it by force of arms. The labor of creating lasting understanding through education and cultural intercourse takes years. But there are other forms of understanding which can be achieved quite as rapidly as an army can be trained and shipped, or a political or diplomatic offensive carried to a successful conclusion.

Second, I do not agree that the whole matter has been taken out of UNESCO's hands into the hands of the diplomats and the soldiers. And for the simple reason that it is not a matter which can be so taken. The "cold war" is not a "war" soldiers know how to fight or diplomats know how to control. It is, on the contrary, as the Russians realize and almost daily confess, a "war" on a battlefield where physical weapons have little power and the tech-

niques of diplomacy are altogether useless. It is a "war" of which the battlefield is men's minds—the minds of all men everywhere—and in which the weapons are the things by which men's minds are moved. It is, in other words, precisely such a war as the Constitution of UNESCO, not the textbooks of the war colleges and the examples of the foreign-service schools, forsees.

The objectives of this "war" are cultural objectives. We rage, and we properly rage, at the stupidities of the Soviet bureaucracy in its efforts to force the production of a Soviet music, a Soviet architecture, and a Soviet poetry. But the Soviet bureaucracy, for all its stupidity, evinces a clearer understanding of the nature of this conflict than do we in the United States who assume that we can win the "cold war" with planes and ships and the atomic weapon. We are indignant, and we are properly indignant, at the efforts of Communist propaganda in Western Europe to discredit not only the United States Government and the United States people but the whole tradition of Atlantic and Mediterranean civilization, so as to bring down, if it proves possible to destroy them, the central values of our lives. But this vicious and malignant Communist propaganda, brutal and destructive as it is, at least expresses a clearer recognition of the character of the battlefield than the preponderantly economic and military policies which we in the United States have thought it adequate to pursue.

Third, I cannot agree that there is nothing UNESCO can do to hold together the precarious peace until the lasting peace can be built. It is here, I think, that we display that wholly commendable diffidence which is the besetting folly of our kind. When we measure the means available to UNESCO against the tremendous shadow of the crisis of our time and tremble for them, we forget that the means available in other directions are weak as well—and even weaker than our own. Neither political pressure nor economic pressure nor the threat of military force has proved capable of resolving or reducing the danger to the peace. On the contrary, the use of these devices has only aggravated the crisis until we stand today nearer to war than we stood a week ago, and nearer a week ago than the month before that, and nearer the month before than we were when the year began.

It is true, of course, that the measures available to UNESCO are

not measures adequate to the task of bringing the Soviet and American governments into accord if either of these two governments refuses accord. Neither are they measures which can be effective in the face of contrary policies on the part of either government. Nor, finally, are they measures which can cancel out fanaticism or bigotry or stupidity in high places on either side. But when all this has been said, it is still true that the measures available to UNESCO are measures which do exist, which can be used, and which are appropriate to the particular crisis with which we are faced.

How they can be used will become apparent, I think, if we will consider a little more closely what that crisis is and how these instruments of peace relate to it. The central conflict of our time, we are accustomed to say, is ideological—a conflict of philosophies—a profound difference in beliefs. But differences in belief—even the most profound differences—do not necessarily and of themselves produce the virulent hostility which inspires war. People of the most contrary opinions live together in peace in the United States and in many other countries. Nations which differ in religious faith, in economic system, and in social philosophy, exist and have always existed side by side. What infects and corrupts and poisons differences of belief until they fester in the kind of brutal and irrational hatred our world knows is the loss of that sense of common humanity, of a common human experience, which makes it possible for men who differ to regard each other, nevertheless, as men, and so to suffer each other's aberrations. The key to the crisis of our time is not the clash of ideologies: it is the destruction, in this mechanized and mass-minded time, of the sense of human community—of the sense of the common lot and common destiny and common experience of mankind. We have permitted ourselves to become so obsessed by the spectacle of these great opposing thunderheads of conflicting doctrine that we have forgotten that they confront each other over a common earth—and that that common earth is our lives.

III

But if this is the true nature of the danger which threatens us, what then is the relation to that danger of UNESCO's weapons

for waging peace? A very close relationship, I think. When we speak of the arts, of literature, of science as common international languages, we mean not only that their *forms* pass current in all tongues and in all countries, but that their *content* is commonly understood—for otherwise their forms would be meaningless. We mean that the peoples of the world, in so far as they can speak these common languages, do in fact agree on the fundamental values, and the essential nature, of life, which it is the function of the arts to divine and of the sciences to discover. They believe—they must believe—in man. They believe in man's capacity to know. They share his destiny. They know the same emotions of desire and hope and sorrow and despair. They face the same mysteries of time and space and change, of light and dark. They struggle with the same human problems and ask the same human questions—even the Russians—even ourselves. They ask, all of them, however different their answers may be: What is man? What is his life? What does his death mean?

It is precisely the effect, in other words, of these languages of art and perception, to remind men of those things they hold in common, those things which befall each one as they befall all others. If, therefore, the danger which immediately besets us is a danger springing from the loss of the sense of our common humanity, and if the means we possess in UNESCO to meet that danger are precisely the means by which a sense of common humanity can be restored, then the work UNESCO can and ought to do is clear. We should undertake at once, and by every instrument of immediate usefulness, to restore the lost sense of human community the world so desperately needs to find.

The task is difficult in any case—difficult above all to accomplish quickly—but it is not impossible. The history of our time, which puts tremendous difficulties in our way, provides us allies also. If there are angry and opposing ideologies which divide us and which look to war, the problems to which those ideologies relate are not different problems for different men, but for all men one problem and the same. It is the answers, not the questions, which conflict. The common experience, in other words, *exists*, however obscured it may be by the conflicting responses it has evoked in different countries.

To men throughout the world, except those few who still inhabit untouched primitive communities, the question their lives require them to answer is a common question—how can a man live as a man in this vast, impersonal, mechanized world of enormous human masses and complicated industrial relationships in which one man alone is helpless—how is a man to live in such a world—how is he to regain some measure of control over his own destiny—how is he to possess some part of his dignity and worth?

There are different answers, and the answers hate each other, but the question is everywhere the same, differing only in degree—and the question is real, the question is human. To men looking back on this time from another century, it will be the question, not the answers, which will seem important. Indeed, the differences which loom so large to us may seem to them small indeed beside the likenesses which bind us all together. An American of our age may seem far more like his contemporaries in Russia than his own great-grandfather in the England of a hundred years ago.

If UNESCO, forgetting somewhat the literal legalities of its status, will regard itself not merely as the agent of its member governments, but as a kind of trustee, in this time of world political bankruptcy, for those human values which have been committed to its charge; and if it will use all the intelligence and all the tools it possesses to declare and to define the vast and tragic human experience which underlies all the dogmas and the doctrines and the ideologies—if it will use the great work of art and science, and the powerful instrument of education, to remind men everywhere that the question they must answer not only in Russia, not only in France, but here as well and everywhere, is the same question for us all, UNESCO may well break the paralysis of the "cold war," the war of inevitable disasters, the war of numb despair where alone that paralysis can be destroyed.

To do this, to do it effectively, UNESCO must have a voice. It is not enough in a world of iron curtains and police committees and shouting propaganda to raise a standard, no matter how lofty or how noble, to which the honest can repair. It is necessary to give that standard words. Until UNESCO, in its capacity as a trustee for man in a bankrupt world, can speak with a voice at least as loud as the wrangling voices which shout at each other in the war

of nationalistic propaganda, its labors in the immediate cause of peace will come to little. But given a world-wide network of its own, and given the great instruments of culture of which it now disposes, and given the tremendous task of recreating in the minds of men the sense of common humanity, I for one have little doubt that UNESCO's contribution to the immediate cause of peace would be immeasurably greater than the most convinced and hopeful of us dare believe.

TENSIONS AFFECTING INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

Editor's Note: The statement that follows was issued on July 26, 1948, by a group of social scientists brought together in Paris by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization to consider the causes of nationalistic aggression and conditions that are conducive to international understanding.

Man has now reached a stage in his history where he can study scientifically the causes of tensions that make for war. The meeting of this little group is itself symptomatic, representing as it does the first time the people of many lands, through an international organization of their own creation, have asked social scientists to apply their knowledge to some of the major problems of our time. Although we differ in the emphases we would give to various parts of our statement and in our views as to its comprehensiveness and implementation, no one of us would deny the importance of any part of it.

We agree to the following twelve paragraphs:

(1) To the best of our knowledge, there is no evidence to indicate that wars are necessary and inevitable consequences of "human nature" as such. While men vary greatly in their capacities and temperaments, we believe there are vital needs common to all men which must be fulfilled in order to establish and maintain peace: men everywhere want to be free from hunger and disease, from insecurity and fear; men everywhere want fellowship and the respect of their fellow men; the chance for personal growth and development.

(2) The problem of peace is the problem of keeping group and national tensions and aggressions within manageable proportions and of directing them to ends that are at the same time personally and socially constructive, so that man will no longer seek to exploit man. This goal cannot be achieved by surface reforms or isolated efforts. Fundamental changes in social organization and in our ways of thinking are essential.

(3) If we are to avoid the kind of aggression that leads to armed conflict, we must, among other things, so plan and arrange the use of modern productive power and resources that there will be maximum social justice. Economic inequalities, insecurities, and frustrations create group and national conflicts. All this is an important source of tensions which have often wrongly led one group to see another group as a menace through the acceptance of false images and oversimplified solutions and by making people susceptible to the scapegoating appeals of demagogues.

(4) Modern wars between nations and groups of nations are fostered by many of the myths, traditions, and symbols of national pride handed down from one generation to another. A great many current social symbols are still nationalistic, hindering the free movement of thought across political boundaries of what is, in fact, an interdependent world.

(5) Parents and teachers find it difficult to recognize the extent to which their own attitudes and loyalties—often acquired when they were young and when conditions were different—are no longer adequate to serve as effective guides to action in a changing world. Education in all its forms must oppose national self-righteousness and strive to bring about a critical and self-disciplined assessment of our own and other forms of social life.

(6) The development of modern means of swift and wide-range communication is potentially a great aid to world solidarity. Yet this development also increases the danger that distortions of truth will reach a great many people who are not in a position to discriminate true from false, or to perceive that they are being beguiled and misled. It must be a special responsibility of U. N. organizations to utilize these means of mass communication to encourage adequate understanding of the people in other countries. This must always be a two-way traffic. It will aid the cause of peace if nations are enabled to see themselves as others see them.

(7) The prospect of a continuing inferior status is essentially unacceptable to any group of people. For this and other reasons, neither colonial exploitation nor oppression of minorities within a nation is in the long run compatible with world peace. As social scientists we know of no evidence that any ethnic group is inherently inferior.

(8) Many social scientists are studying these problems. But social scientists are still separated by national, ideological, and class differences. These differences have made it difficult for social scientists to resist effectively the emergence of pseudoscientific theories which have been exploited by political leaders for their own ends.

(9) Objectivity in the social sciences is impossible to achieve whenever economic or political forces induce the investigator to accept narrow, partisan views. There is urgent need for a concentrated, adequately financed international research and educational program.

(10) We recommend, for example, the cooperation of social scientists on broad regional and international levels, the creation of an international university and a series of world institutes of the social sciences under international auspices. We believe that international scientific fact-finding studies could contribute useful information concerning the cultures of all nations and bring to light dangerous insecurities and sources of tension, as well as legitimate aspirations of people all over the world. Equally certain to be rewarding are studies of educational methods in the home, the school, and in youth organizations and other groups by which the minds of the young are oriented toward war or toward peace. From the dissemination of the information resulting from these studies, we may anticipate the emergence of concrete proposals for the guidance of national programs of education.

(11) The physical and biological sciences in recent years have provided impressive demonstrations of the effect of research. Some of the practical results have been rather to dismay and disquiet the civilized world than to reduce its tensions. The scientists whose research has been used in the development of atomic and biological warfare are not themselves responsible for launching a curse upon the world. The situation reflects the forces now determining the uses to which science can be put. While other factors are concerned, we hold that the chances for a constructive use of the potentialities of scientific and technological developments will improve if and when man takes the responsibility of understanding the forces which work upon him and society both from within and from without.

(12) In this task of acquiring self-knowledge and social insight, the social sciences—the sciences of Man—have a vital part to play. One hopeful sign today is the degree to which the boundaries between these sciences are breaking down in the face of the common challenge confronting them. The social scientist can help make clear to people of all nations that the freedom and welfare of one are ultimately bound up with the freedom and welfare of all, that the world need not continue to be a place where men must either kill or be killed. Effort in behalf of one's own group can become compatible with effort in behalf of humanity.

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THE NEWS: FOURTH DIMENSION OF EDUCATION

By EARL L. VANCE

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If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do, and how to do it.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

From the beginning of public education in the United States, citizenship has been its primary aim. This objective underlay the founding of the public school systems all the way up to the state universities, and remains to this day their one universal aim.

Social action—intelligent decisions on issues as they arise—is, then, the main end of education, at least in its social aspect. As a result of his instruction, the student is to make informed judgments on the countless questions later to confront him. We cannot, of course, tell him in advance what these issues will be or in what guise they will present themselves. Still less can we tell him what will be the relevant facts he will need for understanding them. All life long he must discover these things at the moment of action. Information and action will often be almost simultaneous, never far apart.

Irrespective of any other preparation, intelligent social action will thus always depend on one's getting, all through life, an accurate and adequate news supply. We can at best only half fortify a young person in advance to cope with future issues. If we teach him history and tell him that history forever repeats itself, he still must always decide from the facts of the moment just what history is being repeated. If there are discoverable social laws and patterns which he can be taught, they too will avail him little except as he is able accurately to assay the complexities of his ever-moving present to discover what laws and what patterns are now applicable.

Any social education which does not enable the student to cope with the news problem leaves him, therefore, unprepared at a crucial point. Irrespective of what else he may know, he is hopelessly handicapped in social matters without two characteristics: knowing how and where to get reliable current information, and, no less indispensable, the habit of actually getting it. For it is not enough to know how to be informed. Intelligent social action will depend on actually being informed; for life-long social action inevitably will be based on the information actually and constantly received. To fulfill its social mission, therefore, education must guarantee that its charges will be influenced permanently toward the best in current reading.

This, I am aware, presents education with a formidable task. But education is a formidable task no matter how you look at it; and if we come to find that the whole program of education for democracy is contingent on whether education can and does improve news-getting habits, perhaps we shall at least bend some serious efforts in this direction—which is more than we are now doing.

II

The failure in education for citizenship in America today is, I believe, more than anything else, precisely the failure, significantly, to improve current reading habits, which is to say news-getting habits. We send students through high school, through college, and even on through the graduate school with essentially the same periodicals in their hands—and hence, on most current topics, with the same ideas in their heads.

We have not come to realize—at least we have not given practical application to the fact—that the news is, as it were, a sort of fourth dimension of education. It is education in a timecontinuum. It is education *en extension*, projecting coextensive with the student's future and destined very largely to guide his thinking to the end.

We often speak of the "influence" of the news as though it were something superficial and intermittent, now and again touching our lives in casual ways, but influencing seriously perhaps only the "uneducated." Certainly so far as education is concerned, we

have not treated news as an important factor in life or regarded it as worthy of serious attention in education.

But the truth is that concerning a very large proportion of current issues the news not only influences our thinking: the news *is* our thinking. Inevitably it determines what we shall think about. Equally inevitably it determines what we shall think about it. More obviously, it determines what we shall not think about and what we shall not think about it.

If these propositions can be demonstrated, I think it will become obvious to anyone that an education which ignores the news is making a fatal oversight. Let us look at these propositions then. How important is the news in determining thinking and hence conduct?

It is not difficult to show that it is very important, indeed, in numerous instances. Take a simple example:

On a perfectly calm, clear day a million Floridians along the lower East Coast can be seen frantically boarding up their store fronts and battening down their shutters. It is hot and still; yet people everywhere are talking about a hundred-mile gale. A visitor from Mars would think them crazy. All this hullabaloo about a storm when not a breath of air is stirring! What are they thinking about?

Obviously, they are not thinking. They are merely responding to a news report. Their "thinking" has little more to do with it than the thinking of an electric motor has to do with its turning when someone snaps on the current. If the storm report were a grand hoax—as news reports have sometimes been—the people would respond no differently. The only reality for them is a report, not a storm. Except for the report the storm simply would not exist for them.

This story is typical of much more of our thinking about current affairs than we realize. Our part in the drama turns out to be not too different from that of the radio receiving set. It merely reproduces what comes to it over the air. The finest set can do no more. It cannot originate or alter the substance of any broadcast. If Fulton Lewis, Jr., is on the air the finest set says exactly what Fulton Lewis, Jr., says. If Carver's Liver Remedy is on the air, the finest instrument sings the praises of Carver's Liver

Remedy. If nothing is being put on the air, nothing can be received.

Like his radio, man by thinking cannot add a single item to the news reports which come to him from all over the world. A revolution in India simply does not exist for him unless it is reported and only to the extent reported. What is happening in China, what people are thinking and doing in Russia, in England, in Washington, even for the most part in one's own town—what one knows or thinks he knows about all these is exactly limited to what others choose to tell him. If his news is blind he is blind. Despite the marvels of modern communication, he still has no other eyes with which to see.

Here is a fact of the greatest significance not only to education but to the whole framework of democracy. Someone has called this the greatest unsolved problem of democracy. Democracy says man must think for himself. But what he thinks is dependent on what he knows. And always between man and what he needs to know are interposed others. On their competence, judgment, accuracy, and integrity he is dependent for what he learns of the day-by-day happenings of his world. He must form his opinions out of the stuff these others give him. He cannot be all over the world at the same time. He can think only with what he knows and he can know only what he is told.

Thus what we call our "thinking" about most of the events and issues—international, national, and even local—that make up so large a part of our lives is largely merely a function of the news. The thinking of millions becomes the work of a handful of strategically placed persons—a man at a radio microphone, another at a news desk, a third at a typewriter a hundred or a thousand or ten thousand miles away.

Irrespective of the keenness of the individual mind, here is where its "thinking" is done, its "opinions" formed. For an opinion is in essence but a summary of one's information. When one says, "I think the Russians are planning to attack Turkey soon," or "It is my opinion that the Greeks are well pleased with their present government," what he is saying is that the reports reaching him have been mainly to this effect or with this emphasis. If, owing to the policy or judgment of his news-gathering agencies, he had re-

ceived no reports to this effect, he would have no such "opinion." To return to the analogy of the radio receiving set, man, within a limited range, can select the sources of his information as he can his programs, but the fact remains that the information reaching him will form his opinions—indeed, be his opinions.

III

And the information reaching us can be, of course, only a negligible part of the whole. No newspaper can tell one-hundredth part of the happenings of a day even in a small area. "All the news that's fit to print" is a nice slogan but otherwise absurd. As Walter Lippmann once said, all the reporters in the world working all the hours of the day could not witness all the happenings of the world. If they could, they could still report only an insignificant number of them. They must select. They must reject. The same selections and rejections, however misconceived, make the stereotype which will be applied to a million minds, not a single one of which can possibly recapture a single discarded item. This is nobody's fault. It is merely inevitable.

We are not presently concerned with whether this process of selection is usually done well or ill. We are only concerned to point out that it is of the essence of the news-gathering function; that as such it becomes an integral part of the thinking process of millions; and, finally, that the sum total of this vast news-gathering mechanism sets hard and fast limits to our individual thinking. In a word, whoever selects our news selects our opinions.

That news selection determines the thinking of people certainly should not sound novel to anyone today. The dictators have taught this with elemental clarity and grotesque emphasis. By the simple process of controlling news and information, they showed that you can make whole peoples embrace the most monstrous and fantastic doctrines. Propaganda ministries found it fairly easy to make peoples separated only by the imaginary lines of a national boundary believe contradictory absurdities.

Much more than we realize our ideological differences with the Russians at the moment are differences in news. We can't think as the Russians think because we do not live in the same world.

The Russians can't think as we do for the same reason. Their facts are not our facts. Our facts are not theirs.

That our individual differences of opinion are also largely mere differences in news sources is not always so obvious. We like to suppose that all of us in America get substantially all the news. We do not go into any fine distinctions as to just what news is. We just take it for granted that our news agencies know what is news and what is not, and when they assure us they give us all the news that's fit to print we more or less take their word for it—although we may sometimes wonder whether some of it is fit to print.

When, therefore, we find wide differences of opinion we attribute these to individual differences in "thinking," not to differences of reading and listening, which they usually are. In by far the majority of instances an informed and skillful observer can discover fairly quickly that this is the case. One who expresses a strong opinion on a broad national or international issue will often very soon quote Commentator X or Columnist Y or Magazine Z. The informed observer can go on from there and with great accuracy predict the person's opinions on most other broad issues. If he quotes the *Saturday Evening Post*, it is a fairly safe bet that he doesn't think much of Wallace or Senator Pepper, nor particularly revere the memory of Franklin D. Roosevelt. He will probably have some ideas about labor—and they won't be regarded as very friendly by labor leaders. On the other hand, it is an equally good bet that one who supports his opinion by citing an article in the *Nation* would have a very different bias.

Nor are these differences to be sufficiently explained by other factors, such as self-interest and the natural tendency of one to read what he agrees with. Many opinions may be explained doubtless on this ground, but wide individual differences of opinion are to be found among individuals of the same occupation and general "class" level. College professors are perhaps about equally divided between "pro-labor" and "antilabor"—using the classification labor leaders themselves would make. But the clearest cases showing reader alignment with his news sources are those farthest removed from him. Is MacArthur doing a good job in Japan? Should we support Chiang Kai-shek in China? What about the United Nations policy in Palestine? We have no pre-

conceived opinion on such subjects. Strong opinions about them usually can very quickly be shown to correspond to a person's news sources.

The pertinent question then becomes no longer, What do you think? but, What do you read? and, To whom do you listen? Here is where action is born. So far as action is concerned, what the world actually is like becomes merely irrelevant. The important consideration is what we have been led to think it is like. For we do not react to the world as it is but to the world as it has been convincingly reported to be. The primitive delivered up his human sacrifice to appease his gods of wrath whether the gods were there to receive it or not. However the gods may have felt about it, the victim was dead.

Man today enacts the exact counterpart, measuring the results with a factor of millions. Scientists who give us an atomic bomb and politicians who determine its use, no less than the primitive, are responding to such information as has been vouchsafed them. If the end be disaster, they, again like the primitive, mercifully can't know that. They can act only on what they have been led to believe at this moment are the relevant conditions respecting their deeds. If later it should turn out that the facts were otherwise or that there are other relevant facts not now known, God help us.

IV

If differences of opinion are largely mere differences in reading and listening, the implications for education are obvious. Since we shall act with reference to the ten thousand issues we meet in life largely on what we are led at the time to believe the facts are, education in news sources is obviously fundamental. More intelligent action—which is the end of education—resolves itself into a matter of securing adequate and reliable news.

This, of course, applies only to current issues; but current issues are all the issues there ever are. No matter how educated we become about Caesar's Gallic War we cannot now stop it, nor are we in the slightest danger from it. It is one war that has even been fully paid for. But if we can now get the facts about China or Greece we can do something about it. We can get out or we can get farther in.

It is these issues on the wing, so to speak, that education must help us to meet. One day doubtless history will put the facts about these issues all neatly in a book so they can be learned by schoolboys; but it is today that we must act, not after our history has been recorded. What we shall know tomorrow about today is always too late. Tomorrow action already will have been taken for better or worse. It does no good for *Fortune* magazine, for example, to give us in 1934 the shocking revelation about the arms traffic between France and Germany in World War I, or Raymond Swing to tell us in 1947 how we lost the peace in 1937. It is much too late to do anything about either. We needed this information when it was news. The important thing is never what history will discover about us but what we discover about ourselves.

The idea that we educate people—*i. e.*, prepare them to meet their ever-changing problems—by giving them a sufficient store of knowledge which they will use in later life much as a squirrel uses his store of nuts in winter, is a fallacy, or at best only a half-truth. It forgets that no amount of schoolbook knowledge can give us the facts we shall need concerning next year's revolution in India or even this year's election in Georgia. All through life we have to get these facts as we go along. We have to play by ear, so to speak; we can't wait until the score has been written to play our piece.

Important as a store of knowledge is, its greatest usefulness will be as a guide to help us secure accurate and adequate information to meet our problems as we go along in life. As the maxim has it, "the half of knowledge is to know where to find knowledge"—at the time we need it. It is on this current knowledge that we act. We make up our minds about the Chinese situation, the Russian question, and candidates for Congress largely on the basis of what we at the time of decision are led to believe the facts are. So does the professional historian.

However much one may know of the past, it can do no more than give him sound principles as a guide to action; it can tell him nothing about the situation now confronting him and to which he must apply his principles. Sound principles will avail little if one is uninformed or misinformed about the present situation to which he must apply his principles. He would be like a physician

applying his assortment of remedies without knowing his patient or what ails him.

There is, nevertheless, a widespread belief that a knowledge of history constitutes the main basis for wise social action. An instance of this may be seen in the crusade sponsored a few years ago by the *New York Times* for the teaching of more history, particularly American history, in the schools, undoubtedly with the aim of improving citizenship. But to what extent can history serve us in meeting present issues?

Let's test this in what is perhaps the most important single issue in the world today—our present relations with Russia. What should our policy be? There are those who counsel a "get tough" policy and others who urge a policy of conciliation and understanding. Can history give the answer?

The answer would seem to depend upon what Russia herself is up to. Are we confronted with a Russia bent on conquest or at least determined to communize the world, by force if need be? And if so can she be dissuaded by a policy of sternness and only by such a policy? Or are we confronted with a Russia whose national aspirations can be, through peaceful compromise, reconciled with our own?

The answers to these questions must be sought in the news, in knowing what the Russians themselves are doing and contemplate doing. The bulk of the news supplied the American people tends to convince them we are confronted with the first set of conditions. If so, a stern policy seems called for. But now and then, someone gives us a very different report, tells us Russia is anxious for peace. This would call for a more amicable policy on our part. What, then, does history "teach" we should do?

It is a truism to say that could we live history over we could do a much better job of it. If so, the reason is not only that we can now see the outcome of our former actions; it also is that we now know what we did not know but needed to know, and with more competent and reliable news media might have known, at the time we had to act. If we had known at the time it happened what we now know about the secret treaties among the big powers in World War I, or, more recently, if we had been given a really

full and fair picture of events leading up to Munich, history might have been written less disastrously.

As yet only the dictator states have fully realized that no advanced social structure can maintain itself without a supporting journalism. This is no less true in a democracy than in a totalitarian structure—indeed, even more true, because a dictatorship can perpetuate itself by methods not available in a democracy. It has unlimited power over its subjects and it is unhampered in exercising such power either by precedent, law, or charter. A democracy, on the other hand, in the last analysis must rely upon the proper thinking of its citizens for its own perpetuation. In the light of our present thesis, this is only another way of saying it must rely upon a proper news supply actually reaching the people.

V

I do not mean to disparage the importance of background knowledge in education for social living. History is important. A store of knowledge is important. But we have failed to see that an education in history and in social theory is inadequate. We have nowhere attempted an adequate education in that aspect of citizenship having to do with securing reliable current information—the aspect corresponding to the physician's training in diagnosis. Schools and departments of journalism, which obviously should have taken the lead in emphasizing the importance of the news problem in general education, for the most part have not. They have regarded their function far too exclusively as vocational or professional. Unlike the better business schools and departments of economics, they have aimed almost exclusively to educate *for* journalism, largely ignoring the much wider need for education *in* journalism. Here is a pioneer field with the greatest social implications.

If we ask why the news remains largely ignored in American education, I think the reasons are two. Schools have an understandable preference for what is definite and final. What is in flux can never yield those supreme pedagogical satisfactions of completeness and stay-putness. The teacher likes to teach what he can pin down, and living realities can never be pinned down.

History, for example, has all been enacted. If we pick up its pieces and put them together like a jigsaw puzzle, there they can forever remain.

But how can one teach something so fleeting as the news? Like a moving shadow, it is now here, now there. Before one has had sufficient time accurately to ascertain its outline it has disappeared altogether. A new shadow has taken its place, and with the same painful sense of uncertainty and incompleteness, we must forever repeat the process. By the time the news comes to rest it is no longer news.

A second reason why we have not brought the news under critical study is doubtless its very potency. The news has remained a commercial commodity, subject to exploitation not always in the public interest. That is to say, the commercial value of news is by no means always commensurate with its social value, and too close a scrutiny, which might reveal this disparity, naturally would not always be welcome. Here, as in all enterprises, there is a vested interest, which is never entirely hospitable to outside "interference."

There is, of course, nothing unique about this. Business and governments have by no means always welcomed the impartial study of their affairs. But in these and other areas education has at least fought for its right to do so; it has not simply abandoned the effort in the face of opposition, and in the long run education has pretty well won out. But the press is, if not more potent, at least more vocal than government or business. It can more quickly slap down those whom it regards as a threat to its power. Taming this lion admittedly is going to be no cinch.

For whatever reason, schools and colleges have made no serious effort to educate in journalism, whether to develop discriminating tastes and habits in current reading, reveal to the student the many and varied sources of current information, or give him skill in evaluating it. As a result, the so-called "educated" person in America typically gets his current information from much the same sources as the barely literate.

I hesitate to state the extent of the ignorance of even college graduates on this subject because it sounds fantastic. I can only say that I have verified the accuracy of what I have to say by

questioning hundreds of college students who, I have every reason to believe, are average.

The typical college senior cannot tell you what the *Nation* or the *New Republic* looks like. He has never read a single article from *Harper's Magazine*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Yale Review*, the *Virginia Quarterly Review*, the *Survey Graphic*, or any similar first-rate journal.

What is more, during all the rest of his life he never will read a single article from any of these journals. He does not know and never will know what sorts of information he could get from them. He knows only his local newspapers, perhaps a news weekly or two, and the mass circulation weeklies and monthlies. He does not even know the vast range in quality and completeness to be found in American newspapers, for typically he has never seen a copy of the *New York Times*, the *New York Herald Tribune*, or the *Baltimore Sun*; and if he has seen he has not read the *Christian Science Monitor*.

Whether newspaper or magazine, the mass circulation publications in general represent similar points of view. This follows from the very fact that they are mass circulation publications. Being beamed to the mass audience, they tend to steer clear of information or ideas disturbing to mass prejudices or running counter to widely held notions, customs, or mores. Those who read only these are certain to get a sketchy and one-sided view of many important developments and to miss others altogether.

That the reading of millions—*Fortune* magazine found a few years ago that 60 per cent of the people rely entirely on newspapers for information—should be confined to publications of this general type is not surprising, but that young people should be permitted to go to school and college for 16 years without being made thoroughly familiar with the much wider resources available for current information is inexcusable. Surely it is not asking too much to expect that somewhere during the long years devoted to formal education the young person should at least be made acquainted with the sources from which he can get different versions, interpretations, and emphases of what is happening in his world. Making known the resources of knowledge is the most elementary task of education.

VI

There remains the question, Can education do anything directly to inculcate better habits, taste, and judgment in current reading? Or is education here merely irrelevant?

It would be absurd to say that education cannot influence reading preferences. It can influence them, both directly and indirectly. One hears much about "giving people what they want," as though reading tastes were innate. (It will usually be observed that this phrase is employed to justify what is admittedly a rather shoddy bill of fare.) Reading preference is largely a matter of habit, and it is distinctly a function of education to inculcate good reading habits. Intelligent social living, as we have tried to show, is dependent on its doing so.

Like objectives have long been attempted in literature. Here it has been regarded as an elemental responsibility to teach good reading—and we have had no undue timidity in telling the student what is good and what is not. Nor have we concealed that our objective avowedly was to cultivate reading taste—that is, to cause the student to prefer what we consider best.

But when it comes to current periodical reading we have assumed either that there is no better or worse, that we could not know what it is, or that educationally it is a matter of no importance. If everyone in America grows up to read a Hearst newspaper, a pulp magazine, and the *Redbook*, schools and colleges for the most part have acted as if that is all right with them. They have simply paid no attention to the matter.

And if half-consciously they have assumed that teaching Shelley and Milton will be tough on the circulation of *Cosmopolitan* and *Liberty*, it is time they learn the journalistic facts of life. These can be found in Ayer's *Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals*, which shows the paid circulation of periodicals. It is a disgrace to have 2,500,000 persons in college alone in the United States and many times that many college graduates and still have no first-rate magazine devoted to the critical presentation of current affairs of much over 100,000 circulation—particularly considering how few such there are.

I would go so far as to say that, far from being impotent here,

there are few areas where education can function so effectively as in improving current reading tastes. In saying this I would like the reader to know that I am not speaking out of a book but from a long experience in teaching current reading. For many years and with many hundreds of unselected students I have taught current periodical reading, in exactly the same way literature has always been taught—by simply selecting the best periodicals and having the students read them. This is not done by fits and starts but steadily, comprehensively throughout the year, or even through two or three years. For, like any other habit, a reading habit can be acquired in only one way—through long and repeated practice.

Such a reading course yields many-sided rewards, but it is its influence on current-reading habits that concerns us here. Quite beyond doubt lasting influences in the direction of better current reading are acquired to not an inconsiderable degree and in not an inconsiderable number of cases. This I have not learned in formal examinations where we teachers have to test most of our labors but in the much more realistic ways of observing what happened to students later, after they were entirely away from college. The nature of this evidence—secured in hundreds of letters, personal contacts, observation of careers, reports of others—is far too comprehensive to be presented here, and I shall have to ask the reader to take my own observation for what it may be worth.

Just as the methods of scholarship are best taught in the pursuit of scholarship, so the resources of current information are best learned in the securing of current information. Education in the news, therefore, should be a thoroughgoing course in current reading—all kinds of reading. For, as much as anything else, the student needs to learn that the news is not all to be found in newspapers. News is much broader than newspaper news. Newspaper news is only the froth, the foam on the news stream. There is news in magazines, in government bulletins, in pamphlets and propaganda leaflets issued by all sorts of persons and organizations, in publications of societies, even in books.

In short, what is needed but missing in American education, in both content and method, is a forthright study of this day in history, this ever-moving now, to discover what we know, what we don't know, and what we ought to know as a basis for this day's

action. Such a study certainly would not lack for richness in content. It would provide method in following a moving culture. It would develop reading habits. In a word, it would serve both to launch the young person into the stream of his culture and to provide him with a method of keeping abreast of it.

I do not offer education in the news as the "solution" to the news problem. There is no solution, just as there are no solutions to many of the paradoxes inherent in democracy—*e. g.*, freedom, which implies the right to be ignorant if one chooses, is incompatible with the democratic imperative to be well informed. So the nature of our so-called "thinking" about current issues, now seen to be largely a process of receiving and summarizing news, presents a like dilemma for democracy. It means that the people who must rule in a democracy are themselves inevitably largely ruled by what is made available to them in the news. One horn of the dilemma is to guarantee the news—make people believe the right things by forbidding them to hear the wrong. This solution is always tempting good men to destroy democracy through too much zeal for it.

While I would not want to be understood as entirely ruling out the possibility of making some sorts of rules governing the commerce in news, I do not think the main hope lies in that direction. In a democracy we cannot solve the news problem by undertaking to guarantee its truth—in the legal definition of "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." Men just don't yet grow wise enough to tell us this. Whether handled commercially or otherwise the news must remain free, which means it must be free to be wrong. We must, as Thomas Jefferson said, tolerate error—no less in news than in universities.

But solely from the standpoint of social education, we must do what we can to enable the citizen to sort out the error. Upon his competence to do so depends his competence to function as a social being. Without the skill to find the news, his social education still leaves him, as it were, with blinders on. From the standpoint of education in citizenship, therefore, the gross neglect to acquaint students adequately with the resources of current information must be reckoned a colossal blindness on the part of schools and colleges, and especially their branches in the social studies.

A static education would be all right if the world were static, if there were only space relationships. It would then be necessary only carefully to label, classify, and describe the properties and relationships of worldly affairs, much as we catalogue the objects in a museum. But even before the space relationships can be described, time has moved the whole mass, upsetting our nicely-designated objects and their relationships. A Rip Van Winkle education becomes outmoded long before Rip wakes to discover his once familiar world gone.

The problem seems clearly set. Education in journalism, in the methods and resources of current information, is fundamental, and competence in this area cannot be assumed to come automatically and without conscious direction. For one's proper functioning as a citizen in a democracy and for intelligent living, competence in journalism ranks among the highest needs. If democratic education is to survive, it is inconceivable that schools and colleges can continue in large part to ignore the instruments of mass communication.

THE EVALUATION OF FACULTY SERVICES

By a Committee of the University of North Dakota Chapter of the American Association of University Professors¹

Nothing was said of courses to be taught, minimum hours of instruction, or the like mundane matters. In the end I had to inquire what the homework would be—how many hours and what courses I would be required to teach. Professor Hull seemed mildly surprised at the question. "Why," he said, "I don't know that anything is *required* exactly. It has been customary for the Professor of Modern History to give to the undergraduates a general survey course in modern history, and sometimes if he deems it advisable, a more advanced course in some part of it in which he is especially interested, and in addition to supervise, to whatever extent may seem to him desirable, the work of such graduate students as may come to him. We had rather hoped that you would be disposed to do something of this sort, but I don't know that I can say that anything specific in the way of courses is really required. We have assumed that whatever you found convenient and profitable to do would be sufficiently advantageous to the university and satisfactory to the students." Well, there it was. Such a magnification of the professor, such a depreciation of the university, had never before, in similar circumstances, come my way. After a decent interval I condescended to join the faculty of Cornell University. And why not? To receive a good salary for doing as I pleased—what could be better? The very chance I had been looking for all my life.²

Perhaps there are a few institutions in this Elysian condition. Doubtless, in a number of institutions, there are departments that approach such a Utopia. But most of us teach under some sort of teaching load regulation, which may be official or merely traditional and which is seldom invoked or at least not consistently.

The most widely used unit (at least in theory) for measuring the

¹ The personnel of the Committee is as follows: A. J. Björk, Associate Professor of Education; J. Donald Henderson, Assistant Professor of Physics; William E. Koenker, Instructor in Economics; Philip J. Potter, Professor of Mechanical Engineering; and George C. Wheeler, Professor of Biology (Chairman).

² "The Cornell Tradition: Freedom and Responsibility," by Carl Becker. *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, October, 1940, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, pp. 509-522.

teaching load is the credit hour, *i. e.*, the credit received by the student. In spite of wide theoretical usage it is generally regarded as unsatisfactory and unfair. There are many objections to the credit-hour standard. It assumes that all courses in all fields of knowledge require an equal amount of preparation and paper work by the teacher for delivery of one credit hour to the student. It assumes that a laboratory hour requires only one-half (or even one-third) as much pedagogical energy as an hour of lecture or recitation. (This is a disputed point which we shall not even attempt to handle here.) It does not take into account the number of preparations, the enrollment, nor the amount of assistance. Furthermore, it cannot, by definition, evaluate other services often required of teachers: administrative duties, public relations activities, routine committee work, and research.

Take research, for instance. Some professors do not want to do research. Should they have the same teaching load as the productive scholar? Many professors *want* to do research, and many institutions *expect* their teaching staff members to do research; other institutions merely render lip service. Some institutions allow time for research, at least in the upper ranks. Others expect research, base promotion and salary on it, but won't pay for it. That is to say, they expect the teacher to do his research on "his own time" at the expense of his family life, his recreation, his sleep, or his health. Actually research is sometimes done at such a cost, but more often at the expense of his teaching. One member of this committee, during his first year of university teaching, complained to an old-timer that he couldn't find time for research; the latter's comment was, "If you want to do research, you'll have to learn to neglect your teaching."

What about excessive loads of teaching alone? Overloading is equivalent to underpayment, which is bad enough. But from the broader professional view there is a more serious objection: overloading means dilution of teaching effectiveness or injury to the teacher's health or both. Our academic lamps may be dim from an overloaded circuit or else short-lived because they are burned at too high a voltage. The supply of good lamps is too short for the latter extravagance.

If any reader wishes to delve deeply into the history and com-

plexity of the teaching load problem, we refer him to an article¹ by John Dale Russell of the United States Office of Education. We say "history and complexity" advisedly, for one will find little else. This is no depreciation of an excellent treatment; it is merely the nature of the material. This is well shown in Russell's concluding statement:

By way of summary it may be said that the whole problem of the measurement of service load of faculty members is very complex. The measures currently in use are crude and fail to take into account many of the important factors which contribute to the burden carried by faculty members. Discouragingly little progress has been made in recent years in improving the technique of evaluating faculty service loads. Research is needed to point the way to better procedures of a sort that will be practical in the internal administration of colleges and universities.

A layman might reasonably ask: "Why? A university faculty is supposed to be high-powered as to intelligence. How can it help solve the vastly more difficult problems of society if it can't solve its own problems."

Several reasons have occurred to us:

1. Inertia.—University faculties, *as faculties*, are lazier than you think.
2. Essential conservatism of professors.—Sometimes discourteously termed neophobia.
3. Mathematicophobia.—Endemic among teachers in non-science fields. Naturally any improvement over the credit-hour system will involve a little arithmetic, but it should not exceed the capacities of the large majority of teachers.
4. The Vested Interests.—On every faculty are some who feel that they can do better in the matter of load (as well as salaries) by bargaining individually with the administration than by cooperative action with their colleagues.

II

When this committee was organized last autumn, our member from Engineering submitted for our consideration an article by

¹ Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1946, Vol. XVIII, Chap. VIII.

Asa S. Knowles and William C. White.¹ The committee was so favorably impressed by the plan proposed that we promptly decided to recommend an adaptation of it for the consideration of our chapter. Because of the high regard in which we hold this article we submit here an abstract of it.

The authors propose that education take a lesson from industry in this matter of evaluating the teaching job by attacking the problem of faculty loads with the tools of modern management rather than in terms of traditional educational terminology. Specifically, they suggest that if an evaluation of faculty service load is to be meaningful it must be based upon a separate analysis of the various components which taken together comprise the work done by a faculty member.

This means that courses should not be parcelled out in semester hour lots to the members of a large faculty, but each unit in the curriculum should be evaluated.

Course evaluation has no bearing upon the rating of individual instructors, since it is an instrument designed to measure *minimum course requirements* and not the *performance of members of the instructing staff*. The latter is certainly important and should be taken into account in the administration of faculty loads, but the appraisal of the personal qualities of the teacher is a separate aspect of the problem.

In order to test out the use of Course Evaluation as a tool for educational administrators and to determine whether there can be a considerable degree of unanimity among educators in appraising courses, the authors tried out the plan experimentally with ten carefully selected courses representative of those that would be included in the curricula of many institutions. These selections were made to include courses with widely different objectives and content: courses typical of the elementary, advanced, and professional levels of study; those illustrative of the laboratory, lecture, exercise, and recitation method of conduct.

Five hundred questionnaires were sent to individuals in over 200 colleges and universities. Replies were received from 228 whose average experience in their special fields was over ten years. Each individual was asked to indicate the minimum hours required per week for courses in his specialized field for persons giving the course for the first time and for persons who had given it for a number of years. The total time for the course was divided into the following subdivisions for each case: Preparation of Course Ma-

¹ "Evaluation of Faculty Loads in Institutions of Higher Learning," *Journal of Engineering Education*, 1939, Vol. XXIX, pp. 798-810.

terial, Correction of Student Papers and Examinations, Conferences with Students, Consultation with Staff, Bookkeeping such as making up grades, records, etc.

The general conclusions are:

The time required for the successful conduct of a course bears no significant relation to the semester hour credit carried by the course. Educational administrators have generally assumed that an instructor will need to devote approximately three hours of time for each semester hour assigned him. Of this about a third is usually given to class work and the other two-thirds to preparation, correction, etc. The results show that the ratio of total time requirements to semester hour credits is never less than 2.9 to 1 and it may be as high as 5.5 to 1.

The great variation in the requirements imposed by different courses reveals the unfairness to individual teachers, as well as institutions, of establishing any standard of faculty load in terms of semester hours.

The evidence indicates that lecture, recitation, and laboratory class hours cannot be arbitrarily equated on the basis of a general formula for all courses.

Because the load factors of preparation and staff consultation will not vary directly as the number of sections, appropriate allowance must be made for these in computing the total load of an instructor who carries more than one section of the same course. For example, the questionnaires show the total load imposed by one section of Analytic Geometry to be 14 1/2 hours. Three sections of this course would probably require no more preparation or staff consultation than one section; therefore, the load imposed by three sections would be 36 1/2 hours.

The time requirements imposed on an instructor who is offering a course for the first time are appreciably greater than those imposed on him in subsequent years by the same course.

III

According to our adaptation of the Knowles-White plan, an institution would establish a *weekly service load* to include all the services faculty members are expected to render to the institution. We are not prepared to say what this load should be, but for purposes of discussion we use forty hours.

Deans and department heads would have to estimate the time devoted to their administrative duties. Such estimates would necessarily be rough at first but could be revised in the future. The average time required in service on standing committees could

be estimated from past experience. The time required for a research project cannot, of course, be predetermined, but an institution can determine in advance how much it can afford. For example, a teacher might be allowed one-fourth time (or ten hours a week) for research.

The most complicated problem would be the evaluation of the teaching portion of the service load. This would be done by departments, though an umpire of some sort (administrative officers or a faculty committee) might be needed to moderate the excessive zeal (cynically referred to as "chiseling") of some departments. Each department would evaluate each of its courses in terms of the average number of hours per week required of the teacher. This value would be stable though not immutable. It would be a rough estimate at first. Continued study would permit revision and refinement. We have prepared a *Basic Evaluation Sheet* (Fig. 1) to be used in making such evaluations. These basic sheets would be filed in duplicate in departmental or administrative offices and would be permanent though modifiable in the light of experience.

At the beginning of each semester a *Semester Evaluation Sheet* (Fig. 2) would be filled out by each teacher. This would take into account the course evaluations (from the Basic Evaluation Sheets), the enrollment for that semester and the assistance provided for the teacher. The total on this sheet would be the individual's teaching part of the service load for that semester. To this teaching load would be added the hours allowed for research, administrative work, committee work, and any other duties. The grand total would be the individual's service load for that semester.

There will be objections to this plan—in addition to the objections to any plan.

1. Many professors are class conscious and cannot abide the thought of being compared with laborers in the slightest detail. The work-week (or service-week) does—at least verbally—give such a suggestion.

2. The antimathematical and the lazy professors will balk at the "enormous amount of work required to establish the system." It is true that it would require a lot of work to get the system established. But if done cooperatively by the members in each de-

FIGURE 1
BASIC EVALUATION SHEET

Department _____ Course No. _____

Title of Course _____

| | A. Basic Evaluation | | | B. Duplicate Section | | | C. First Teaching | | |
|--|---------------------|------|------|----------------------|------|------|-------------------|------|------|
| | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. |
| 1. Hours in class per week | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Study in preparing for this particular class (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Making or revising outlines (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Apparatus and material (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Constructing examinations and keys (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Staff conferences (for this course only) (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Duties peculiar to this course (hours per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Minimum hours per week for this class regardless of number of students. (Total of items 1-7 in each column) | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Grading examinations (minutes per student per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Grading daily or weekly work, reports, etc. (minutes per student per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Conferences with students (minutes per student per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Bookkeeping (minutes per student per week) | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Total (minutes per student per week). (Total of items 9-12 in each column) | | | | | | | | | |

(See bottom of page 573 for instructions for Figure 1)

partment, started tentatively, and revised in the light of experience gained from usage, the burden would not be great. Once established it would require no more time than is used to fill out the customary schedule cards.

3. It is objected that the teacher has a "job to do;" that he should do it conscientiously to the best of his ability regardless of the time; that no two teachers devote the same amount of time to the same course, because of differences in efficiency or experience; that the same teacher varies the time devoted to a given course from year to year; that no one can tell how much time a piece of research will require. All true, but not pertinent. They would apply in any system—credit-hour, contact-hour, or service-hour. We merely claim that the service-hour standard is the best.

4. Some will object that this is a step toward clock-punching for professors. This we deny. There is nothing in this system that requires it. There is no requirement that a professor spend exactly so many hours on a certain course in every week; nor that he follow a more rigid schedule than he does under any other system. If he wants to do his studying or research between midnight and dawn and devote his afternoons to golf or fishing, he is still at liberty to do so.

We are not perfectionists. We do not claim that our proposed system will solve the problem completely. Nor will any other system. But we believe our system has several advantages. The service hour is a more practical and more equitable measure than either the credit hour or the contact hour. It takes into account

INSTRUCTIONS

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| Item 2. | Do not include general professional reading in your field. Include only study for this particular course. |
| Item 4. | Collecting, assembling, setting up, taking down; construction; repair and cleaning; care of animals and plants; apparatus, material, demonstrations. |
| Column A. | Use this column if there is only one section of this course. If there are two or more sections, use this column for one of the sections and compute the time as if there were only one section. |
| Column B. | If a teacher has two or more sections of the same course, one section is taken care of in Column A. How much <i>additional</i> time (<i>i. e.</i> , additional to time required for one section only, which is given in Column A) would <i>each</i> additional section require? |
| Column C. | If the course were being given by a teacher who had never taught it before, he would require more time than that given in Column A; use this column. |

FIGURE 2
SEMESTER EVALUATION SHEET

Instructor's Name _____
Department _____ Course No. _____

| Title of Course: | Basic Evaluation | | | First Teaching | | | First Duplicate Section | | | Second Duplicate Section | | | Third Duplicate Section | | |
|---|------------------|------|------|----------------|------|------|-------------------------|------|------|--------------------------|------|------|-------------------------|------|------|
| | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. | Lec. | Rec. | Lab. |
| Enrollment | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I. Minimum hours per week for this class regardless of enrollment (Item 8*) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| II. Adjustment for enrollment (Item 13 X enrollment + 60*) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| III. Total hours per week (I + II) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| IV. Deduction for assistance (hrs. per week) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| V. Net total (hrs. per week), (III minus IV) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

This teacher's load in Service Hours for this course is sum of all amounts in Item V _____

* Items from Basic Evaluation Sheet

time for research, administrative duties, and routine committee work. It automatically takes care of the enrollments (both large and small), the number of preparations, new courses, duplicate sections, and assistance.

It has a further advantage: it need not be adopted by a whole institution; it can be employed independently by a school or a department. It might be used by comparable departments in different institutions. It is conceivable that a single professor might advantageously apply it to himself alone.

Finally, it would be intelligible to the public. Any one who has tried to explain the credit-hour load to a layman will appreciate this advantage. A load of fifteen credit hours a week—regarded as excessively heavy by the profession in general—is viewed by the average citizen as a part-time job, and even the best apologies and explanations leave him politely skeptical. But a forty-hour week, he can understand.

HOW TO IMPROVE CLASSROOM LECTURES

By LOREN D. REID

University of Missouri

The offer to improve classroom lectures is, I am aware, an audacious undertaking. So that we may get on common ground I wish to make two preliminary observations.

The first is that I am not here concerned with the content of classroom lectures. The way to improve *what is said* in classroom lectures is to read widely, to conduct research, to exchange views with colleagues at staff seminars and professional meetings, to reflect, and to write. The content of lectures should improve as the teacher's knowledge becomes broader and deeper. If a teacher becomes an original thinker about his subject matter, the content of his lectures will not only improve, but may become brilliant. Yet because there is truth in the campus comment frequently heard, "He knows but he cannot teach," it is profitable for all teachers to consider ways of improving the *presentation* of subject matter.

This brings me to the second observation, namely, that the teacher should always ask himself this question, "Is the lecture the *best* way of presenting the subject matter to students?" Would it be better to plan a field trip, set up a demonstration, use slides or motion pictures, conduct a discussion, have four or five bright students present a panel, or even write out the materials and distribute them in mimeographed form? Even in courses where the lecture is traditional, the lecturer may use a different procedure for the sake of variety. The lecture is not the only way of transmitting information; in many instances it is not even the best way. This paper, accordingly, is further limited to those situations in which the lecture has a fair chance of success.

Any group of teachers could sit down and list the many ways in which classroom lecturing can be improved. The list would include such arts of language as vocabulary, imagery, syntax, paral-

lelism, repetition; such matters of organization as preview, subordination, transition, climax, summary; such principles of delivery as voice quality, rate of utterance, general physical energy, and animation. As the list grew, the possibility of improving lectures would seem more and more likely. This paper will discuss four categories of improvement chosen in part from personal observation and in part from informal interviews with seventy-five students who have received college instruction on twenty different campuses.

The Lecturer's Personality

In his *Rhetoric*, Aristotle states that the speaker's character is one of his most effective agents of persuasion. Listeners believe men of good sense, good moral character, and good will more readily than they do men of opposite traits. When I asked students, "What are the characteristics of the best classroom lectures that you have heard?" or "What are the reasons explaining why certain lectures are ineffective?" the answers often reflected opinions about the character and personality of the lecturer.

The good lecturer, these students pointed out, shows that he has the interest of his listeners at heart. At the beginning of the lecture, for example, good teachers use various methods of arousing the interest of their students. Instead of plunging coldly into the topic, the lecturer might open by commenting upon a chapel talk that all had heard. He might refer to some campus or national incident. He might mention a pertinent clipping that he had run across, or a new book he had received. He might begin with a summary or forecast. He might tell a story. All of these methods start the students to thinking, in as painless a way as possible, about the subject before the group. Some of my informants had observed that experienced teachers were more likely to do these things than were younger faculty members. The younger teachers, they reported, are often more serious, solemn, formal, dignified; they are more likely to open up all their big guns promptly at the ringing of the bell.

The personality of the lecturer is further shown by the way he answers questions. A good teacher welcomes questions from the floor and answers them with completeness, often bringing in rare

details that otherwise might not have come into the discussion at all. The student naturally feels pleased to have his question treated with so much respect. A few teachers seem unhappy when a question is asked, blurting out such brief and inadequate answers that students hate to offend by further inquiries. Some teachers say, in chilling tones, "I discussed that last hour." Others use the familiar dodge, "I'll take that up later on." In some instances, "later on" may actually be the logical time to consider the question; but experienced teachers know that important items can be successfully repeated two or three times anyway, and the question provides a good motivation for one of the repetitions. Furthermore, the lecturer receives more credit from his students for being able to handle a question on the spot than to take it up later after he has looked up the answer.

In many lesser ways a teacher can show good will towards his listeners. It may help if he says, "Now this is a complex principle; I'm going to try to make it clear, but I want you to feel free to ask questions about any point that you do not understand." It shows good spirit for him to say, "We've had to spend a long time on this classification, but another half hour will see us over the worst of it." Or his personality may express itself in entirely different ways; instead of using gentleness and patience, he may use humor, challenge, praise, mock seriousness, or some other approach.

Sometimes students are embarrassed when the teacher begins his lecture by apologizing for his shortcomings. The chairman of the, let us say, Sanskrit department, who has grown white-haired in the pursuit of knowledge and who has achieved renown for his scholarship, may in all truth open a class by saying, "I do not know anything about Sanskrit." Such a declaration would express the humility that comes to a scholar who has long pursued a difficult topic. It may even mark him as a man of wisdom and distinction. If, however, a beginning instructor makes such a statement, students will take it at face value and wonder why they are so unfortunate as to have to study under an ignoramus. A teacher need not reveal the full scope of his ignorance on the first day of the course; he may at least assure his students that he is interested in the subject, that he intends to give them personal attention, that

he invites them freely to express their questions and difficulties.

If teachers will treat a student exactly as they would a colleague, they will have the proper mental attitude for good lecturing. If one thinks of his listeners as fellow scholars he is less likely to scold, nag, heckle, bait, or patronize them.

The Use of Examples

Illustrations, anecdotes, specific instances, and practical applications all add to the effectiveness of a lecture. One student mentioned a professor of philosophy who had a large fund of examples to illustrate faults of reasoning and types of propaganda. Another mentioned a professor of history who frequently exemplified his points by parallel incidents from other centuries or countries. Another mentioned a professor of language who had at the tip of his tongue instances of all sorts of grammatical constructions. Another described a freshman English instructor with a ready supply of unusual ways of beginning themes, developing paragraphs, and ending themes. Another told of a scientist and his stock of interesting intellectual curiosities. Another related how a professor of sociology chose illustrations from many different trades and industries.

Academic circles give their widest applause to the professor who can discover great generalizations: new laws, principles, concepts, interpretations, theories. I recall a professor of Anglo-Saxon who with some feeling told a graduate seminar that he would consider his life on earth well spent if he could discover a linguistic principle as significant as Grimm's law. Although students appreciate the generalizations, they are particularly intrigued by the specific examples. They are beginners, not practitioners. The margin of knowledge between them and their teachers is very great. Largely through the examples do they learn to appreciate the generalizations.

Humorous examples have a special appeal for the student. The opportunity to laugh gives him a chance to relax and tackle anew the serious instruction to follow. Yet the use of humor can be overdone. Students may laugh from 10:00 to 10:50, then at 10:55 complain that the lecturer is just an entertainer who doesn't really teach anything. A teacher may get such a reputation for humor

that no one will take him seriously. The best type of humor is that which grows naturally out of the subject—a turn of phrase or a flash of wit that illuminates a subject without distracting from it.

Improving Delivery

The students I interviewed did not seem especially sensitive to matters of bodily action. Posture and gesture did not impress them, though they noted the difference between an animated, dynamic lecturer and a lethargic one. They were, however, aware of the lecturer's voice, especially when it was not loud enough. Inexperienced teachers holding forth in large lecture rooms sometimes have difficulty in making themselves heard. The student wearies of the constant strain of hearing, and soon loses interest altogether. One teacher answered complaints by this statement: "I am glad that you have to exert yourselves in order to hear me. That extra exertion will make you give special attention to what I am saying." A lecturer with the interest of his students at heart, however, will try to speak distinctly and with sufficient volume to be heard.

To improve audibility is not a simple problem. The teacher may need clinical advice about his voice. The institution may need to study the acoustic qualities of its physical plant. If colleges and universities are to have permanently large enrollments, with the resulting necessity for large classes, they must give acoustic treatment to lecture rooms and in some instances they will need to install sound-amplifying systems.

Clear enunciation, the distinctness with which words are uttered, is another prime requisite of good delivery. "Be sure to tell the teachers to watch their *pronunciation* and *enunciation*," said one student. My interviewees did not appear to be distressed by regional dialects or foreign accents except when comprehension was difficult. What especially worried them was carelessness, slovenliness, and indistinctness. They praised highly the speech of some lecturers, but registered no strong complaint about others so long as they met respectable standards of agreeability and distinctness. Anything below the minimum standard reduces

effectiveness at an alarming rate—may, in fact, bring it almost to the zero point.

Forms of Presentation

Lectures may be delivered impromptu, from notes or outlines, from manuscript, from memory, or from various combinations of the above. Impromptu and memorized presentations will not be considered. The former are too hazardous; as the lawyers say, those who go into court empty-handed will come out empty-handed. The latter are rare; few teachers go so far as to write out their lectures and commit them to memory.

My interviewees had little objection to the use of notes or outlines. They realized that instructors have to present a great deal of factual material, complicated organizations and classifications, and intricate tables and formulas, and that accuracy is of first importance. They agreed, however, that an instructor can be unduly chained to his notes. They did not appear to be especially distressed when the lecturer spends considerable time dictating materials, though if verbatim dictation is carried on too long they began to wonder why he did not mimeograph his ideas. They liked to have the teacher sufficiently free from his notes so that he could answer questions without keeping his finger on his place.

Of the various methods of presentation, the students I questioned had least sympathy with the practice of reading from manuscript. Although they had heard lecturers on many campuses, they did not recall a single instance of a teacher who read lectures effectively. Yet teachers do not have to ask their students for proof that the reading of lectures is usually ineffective. Every one has attended conventions or convocations where what might have been an enjoyable occasion was ruined when the speaker pulled a manuscript out of his pocket. Monotonous vocal pattern, fixed facial expression, and general lack of energy and animation nearly always seem to accompany the reading of a paper.

Theoretically there is little reason why good lectures cannot be read interestingly. A few ministers, like Fosdick, read from manuscript with uncommon skill. A few political speakers, like Churchill, have the ability to bring typed words to life. But the art of reading well is more difficult than the art of speaking well.

The instructor who begins his teaching career by reading his lectures is less likely to develop a successful speaking style than one who begins by using notes or outlines, gradually training his memory and developing his fluency so that he can communicate more and more directly to his students.

Two prerequisites to good reading often escape the teacher. One is that the vocabulary, the sentence structure, and the organization of the lecture should be adapted to oral presentation. Sentences should be simple, language vivid and striking, and organization clear. The general tone should be more informal than that of the scholarly essay. A good way to prepare such a lecture is to follow the practice of the late President Roosevelt and dictate it to a secretary. Such a procedure will tend to assure that the language will be the language of speaking rather than the language of writing. The next step is to revise and re-revise the stenographer's transcript—manuscripts of Churchill and Roosevelt have gone through six to twenty revisions, each revision trying to make the wording more clear, colorful, and meaningful. There is some truth in the statement of Charles James Fox that a good speech does not read well. The speaker aims at something that listens well, not at something for the academic journals.

The second prerequisite is that the reader must so present his ideas as to show that he is actually recreating the thought as he goes along. An incident from the long speaking career of the late President Roosevelt illustrates this principle. On October 29, 1940, he explained to the country over the radio how the Selective Service Act was to be put into operation. The occasion was the drawing of blue capsules from the large glass bowl in the House of Representatives to determine the order in which the young men of the nation would be called to service. In the course of his address, Roosevelt read these words:

And of the more than 16,000,000 names which will come out of the bowl more than half of them will soon know that the government does not require their service.

Then he paused; something in the sentence did not make sense to him; and in a moment he continued:

I made a mistake there—I'm afraid it's the fault of the copy—of the more than 1,600,000 instead of 16,000,000 . . .

There had been some talk of "16,000,000" earlier in the speech; but just now the correct figure was "1,600,000." One who read mechanically would not have noticed that a mistake had been made. By contrast, one of the announcers on the same program was assigned the responsibility of reading the numbers over the microphone as fast as they were drawn from the bowl. The nineteenth number drawn—105—was his own draft number, but he did not realize he had read his own draft number until afterwards when a colleague commented upon it.

The good reader is keenly aware of the significance and meaning of what he is reading. The poor reader follows his manuscript word for word, giving the impression that if a student interrupted him and said, "Professor, what does that last sentence mean?" the lecturer would have to go back and reread the paragraph—this time with awareness of content—before he could answer the question.

Invite Student Comments

Although the real test of a lecturer's effectiveness is measured by the lasting quality of his instruction—the impressions, recollections, and habits of thinking that persist years after graduation—the opinions of students at the time they take the course are valuable. Some teachers hand out questionnaires at the time of the final examination, inviting frank comments. One way is to list the titles of typical lectures, and to ask the students whether each one was poor, average, or good; or whether it should be expanded, deleted, or left unchanged.

Last summer, at a military university, I sat across a discussion table from an army instructor who followed this procedure religiously. His first set of questionnaires, he said, contained many brutal criticisms. "This lecture stinks," said one student-officer, "this one stinks too; in fact, they all stink." "Where did they find you?" wrote a second. About fifty such comments led the instructor to feel that his lectures were not very satisfactory. He found a few helpful clues in the avalanche of ridicule, conferred

with some of his more successful colleagues, and did a little private soul-searching. He showed me the returns from his last set of questionnaires; many of them were quite commendatory. He planned to study that set with intellectual detachment, trying to discover still other avenues of improvement.

Attending a good classroom lecture is a thrilling experience. It is stimulating to sit in the back of an auditorium and observe a good lecturer who by force of his personality, the vigor and originality of his ideas, and the clarity and animation of his presentation arouses the interest and intellectual curiosity of two or three hundred students. The favorable comments of students heard in the hallways following such a lecture are understandably gratifying. The results of effective lecturing are great as regards both educational welfare and personal satisfaction. The improvement of classroom lectures is a worth-while objective for any of us.

Errata in Summer, 1948 Bulletin

In the address, "The Case against a National Science Foundation," by Theodore Koppányi, page 309, line 5, substitute "The Failure of the German Universities," for "The Failure of the Franco-Prussian War."

In the article, "The College President as He Is Today," by B. W. Kunkel, page 348, 3rd line from bottom, and page 349, line 2, substitute Wooster for Worcester.

TRENDS OF ENROLLMENT, FEES, AND SALARIES¹

By CHARLES HOFF

University of Omaha

This report represents the fourth annual survey and study of student enrollment tuition-fee trends, nonresident or "equalization" fees, and faculty salary scales. The survey for the current year includes, in addition, information regarding student and faculty housing. In 1945 we received information from 141 colleges and universities. The following year 143 business officers responded. In 1947 we felt very pleased when 162 questionnaires were returned. The present nation-wide interest in these statistics is evidenced by the fact that this year our survey includes 288 institutions of higher education having a total enrollment of 1,011,564 students. This is nearly one-half of all college students enrolled in the United States (2,354,000 total).

A quick review of the findings in this survey shows that the 1947-48 average enrollment, country-wide, is 80.1% above the 1940-41 prewar enrollment. It shows that during the current year there are 13.8% more students in our colleges and universities than there were one year ago. The chief business officers in our colleges are not too optimistic about next year's enrollment. Of 288 institutions reporting, only 92 (31.9%) were willing to commit themselves as expecting an increase in enrollment next year. Of the 138 business officers who submitted actual percentage estimates of increases or decreases the computed average was 3.5% increase above 1947-48. Only 55 (19%) expect 1949-50 enrollments to be higher than 1948-49. Parenthetically, it is interesting to note that last year's report indicated an estimate for this year of an average

¹ Comments on trends in 288 colleges and universities accompanying statistical tables prepared for the meeting of the Central Association of College and University Business Officers, in St. Louis, Missouri, May 17, 1948. Reprinted through the courtesy of the Association of American Colleges *Bulletin*, October, 1948, Vol. XXXIV, No. 3.

80% above the 1940-41 level. As you have noted earlier in this report, the actual enrollments for this year (1947-48) are 80.1% above 1940-41.

Veteran students this year comprised 47.1% of the entire student enrollment. The number of veteran students in the colleges represented has increased 1.1% over 1946-47, but it is estimated that veteran students will decrease in numbers by 10.4% in the school year starting September 1, 1948.

Two hundred twenty-five colleges and universities have increased their tuition rates since 1940-41; 64 institutions have made such increases during the past twelve months; 91 anticipate higher tuition fees in 1948-49 than are being charged during the current year. Computing the average increase, we find that tuition fees are 53.4% higher this year than in 1936-37; 43.5% higher in 1947-48 than in 1940-41; 29.7% higher than one year ago. It is anticipated that tuition fees in all schools will average 16.9% higher next year than during the current year.

Most public or tax-supported institutions of higher education assess a nonresident fee on students living outside the boundaries of the areas which actually finance their operation. This fee was scheduled because the trustees and the taxpayers knew that the entire cost of operation could not be met by local tax levy, and wanted their own children to pay no higher fees than was absolutely necessary. They also knew that additional students in any quantity require additional facilities, additional staff, and additional maintenance. Public institutions kept fees for local students at as low a point as they felt was possible, and plans for facilities, staff, and current maintenance were made for the *normal growth* of such institutions, through attendance by local students (children of parents who are actually supporting those colleges).

The nonresident fee actually was a rather minor item of income in most colleges prior to 1944. Most business officers agree that this fee was computed to reflect, as nearly as possible, the actual instructional operating cost per student in order that local students and local taxpayers would not be required to pay a hidden part of the costs when the responsibility should be borne by other parents or other political subdivisions.

With the passage of the G. I. Bill the Federal Government ob-

ligated itself to pay "the cost of instruction" for from one to four years of education for veterans. This created an unprecedented rise in college enrollments.

In institutions supported wholly or in part by local taxation (city or state) increased enrollments brought increased total income only in proportion to that part of income which was represented by tuition.

Each student enrolled beyond a normal enrollment figure meant a per-student decrease in income for the college. If normal tuition fees were charged veteran students, even though they resided in the vicinity, this deficit could only be made up through the use of tax funds *paid by local taxpayers*, not by the Federal Government as contemplated by Congress when the G. I. Bill was passed.

Although the local tax income of most colleges is stable it remains practically constant and is comparatively inflexible. It is obvious that in order to remain solvent, tax-supported institutions had to do one of five things when enrollments went beyond normal expectations, to wit:

1. Take no students beyond normal enrollment.
2. Reduce drastically the amount expended on the education of each student.
3. Increase all tuition for veterans and nonveterans alike to meet the deficit caused by the beneficence of the Federal Government.
4. Increase the support received from local tax-levying bodies.
5. Secure from the Federal Government sufficient funds to offset the drain on local tax funds resulting from the excess enrollment caused by the G. I. Bill, a federally-sponsored program.

The Veterans Administration recognized this situation and agreed, therefore, that one of the formulas for determining cost of instruction could be the nonresident fee.

It should be clearly understood that this fee is in no sense a "nonresident" fee, except that the *amount* of such fee happens to have been accepted by the Administrator of the Veterans Administration and the representative of the tax-supporting institutions and provides a ready means of economically and expeditiously implementing the above agreement. A number of schools are now calling it an "equalization" fee.

The data indicate (by percentage, at least) that there have been some rather drastic increases of nonresident fees in some public institutions. In fact, the average increase since 1940-41 is 141.66%. This has brought all kinds of charges from various groups.

Granted that there may be some injustices and unfairness, before condemning the system, let us do three things. First, note that the G. I. Bill states that the Federal Government will pay "cost of instruction;" second, let us compare objectively the nonresident fees being paid to public institutions with the "normal" fees (many of which have also been increased) being paid to comparable private colleges and universities; and third, let us be certain, if a school is being criticized, that it is charging more through the nonresident "equivalency" than the actual cost of instruction.

If there are individual cases of injustice those should certainly be corrected, but the penalizing of all carefully operated institutions, because of a few infractions, would be unfortunate and not in keeping with the spirit of the law.

It is not too difficult to investigate specific cases of increased nonresident fees and determine whether or not they exceed the cost of instruction determined by some other formula. But to discard the present method would be to throw all of us back into the old wartime confusion of government contracts based on complicated cost accounting to separate students A, B, and C sitting in the same classrooms and have us constantly attempting to determine all the factors which make B a more expensive student than C.

Nonresident tuition fees average \$160 per year (two semesters or three quarters). Of the 102 tax-supported schools reporting on this subject, 95 indicated that they are making an additional charge to students who live outside the area which is furnishing the financial support of those institutions. Fifty-nine institutions have raised their nonresident fee since 1936-37; 58 since 1940-41; 15 during the past 12 months; and it is anticipated that 11 more will be forced to increase their nonresident charges for the year beginning September 1, 1948. Nonresident fees have been increased by an average of 170.66% since 1936-37. The 11 schools which expect to increase such fees still higher next year will probably average about 43.6% above the fee being charged this year.

College and university salaries for faculty and administrative staffs have been increased an average of 36.7% since 1940-41. It is anticipated that salaries will be increased an additional 8.3% in 1948-49. Office and clerical staffs in these same colleges have had salary increases which average 39.2% since 1940-41. The business officers estimate that a 7.7% increase will be made in the budgets of next year.

Custodial and maintenance employees have had increases which average, nation-wide, 47.5% above 1940-41. It is estimated that an additional raise of 7.4% will be made by September 1, 1948.

With respect to staff-salary increases we should bear in mind two things. First, prior to 1940 our faculty and employees were not required to pay federal income taxes. Today this takes a sizeable sum out of nearly every payroll check that we issue.

Second, today's cost-of-living index shows an increase of 56.4% above 1940. These two facts plus the general decrease in purchasing power of every dollar causes the increase in college salaries to appear conservative, especially since the *Monthly Labor Review* of February, 1948, indicates that average weekly earnings in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries increased by nearly 115% from 1939 to December, 1947.

College and university instructors receive, for their nine months' service in the regular school term, an average annual salary of \$2,723. The range, however, extends from a low of \$1,300 to a high of \$5,300. Assistant professors average \$3,344 for nine months, in a range of \$1,500 to \$5,400; associate professors average \$3,866, in a range of \$1,650 to \$6,650; full professors average \$4,560, in a range of \$1,800 to \$9,367. The salaries of deans vary a great deal, depending upon the size of the school, and many other influencing factors. Of 233 institutions, both large and small, the average salary for deans is \$5,878.

Registrars receive an average salary of \$4,165 per year for 12 months' services. Their salaries range from \$1,740 to \$9,000. Librarians average \$3,840 in a range of \$1,728 to \$8,500. Building and grounds superintendents average \$315 per month in a range of \$125 to \$725; stationary engineers \$251.35 per month in a range of \$116 to \$463; secretaries \$168 per month in a range of \$90 to \$310.

The survey shows that 97 out of 280 institutions of higher learn-

ing maintain trailer-camp facilities for their students and faculty. One hundred eighty-four maintain various types of temporary housing units. The housing of faculty members has become a very critical problem, and it is found that 187 out of the 280 reporting on this subject have made some provision through the schools for maintaining faculty housing facilities. Two hundred sixty-three colleges of the 280 reporting operate some type of permanent student dormitories.

The average dormitory-room rate being charged students for single occupancy is \$28.33 per month. Where two students occupy a room, the average monthly charge is \$15.68 each. If three or more occupy the same room the average is \$15.15 per month. The average rate being charged for board alone (three meals per day) is \$9.27 per week.

The low percentage-increase, median and average, can be found for state universities, state teachers colleges, municipal universities, and private and endowed colleges and universities. This quick summary has been given merely to indicate where various types of information may be found in the tables.

It was pointed out in our 1945 study¹ that "fees charged students have traditionally been expected to apply only to the current expenses of the institution or to some part of its activities." With the rapid increase in living costs (making higher faculty salaries essential) and in general maintenance expenses and because of the decreased earnings of endowment funds, the increase in student tuition fees and in nonresident fees is clearly understandable. Tax income for the public-supported institutions is stable through depression and inflation, but it is comparatively inflexible. During any inflationary period the purchasing power of the tax dollar constantly decreases. Therefore, with the increased student-unit cost of operation, the only source from which schools can obtain additional operating funds is the student body itself.

In the same study referred to above, it was pointed out that the "movement in levels of tuition fees tends to lag somewhat behind the movement in wholesale prices. Falling prices are not followed by reduction of fees in the colleges, but price increases are typically

¹ Proceedings of the Central Association of University and College Business Officers, February, 1945.

followed, after some delay, by increases in tuition fees. The chief adjustment of tuition fees to the changes in wholesale price levels seems to be that of increasing tuition fees somewhat more rapidly in times of increasing price levels than in times of decreasing price levels. Tuition fees seem to be adjusted much more exactly to an index of wages than to an index of price levels. . . ."

Continuing to quote from the 1945 report, "The relationship between changes in tuition fees and trends in collegiate enrollment is also interesting. In general, the trends in fees and in enrollments have paralleled each other. That is, during the period when fees were being gradually increased, enrollments were increasing at approximately an equal rate. During the period of very rapid increase of student fees following World War I, enrollments of students likewise increased in an amazing manner. During the economic depression of the 1930's both tuition fees and enrollments increased at a somewhat slower rate than previously."¹

Now, in 1948 as compared with 1940-41, we find enrollments have increased 80.1%; tuition fees 43.5%; faculty salaries 36.7%; and custodial and maintenance wages 47.5%. During the same period the cost-of-living index² has increased from 100.7 to 157.1, while the wholesale price index³ has gone from 78.6 to 147.8. The purchasing power of the dollar⁴ climbed from 100 in 1923 to 117.2 in 1940 and then fell to 79.1 by December, 1947.

What warning should we, as business officers, take from the information contained in this report?

It seems evident that our rapid growth of the last three years is not to continue at the momentum to which we are accustomed. It is very possible that we are now on the plateau which was prophesied by some for 1950.

Therefore, it behooves us to be thinking, with our presidents, our boards of regents, and our deans, about increased quality of education rather than increased quantity of students. The plateau should be welcomed because we may be relieved of some of the terrific pressure that has accompanied the flood of students—a

¹ John Dale Russell, "The Finance of Higher Education," University of Chicago Bookstore, 1944, page 181.

² Industrial Conference Board Economic Almanac, 1948, page 57.

³ *Ibid.*, page 49.

⁴ *Ibid.*, page 52.

pressure of minute details which has left all too little time to "just sit and think."

But concentration on the problem of quality will not eliminate financial problems. Better faculty will mean higher salaries. Smaller classes mean a high operating cost per student. Effective research is always expensive. Modern equipment to help the faculty to better teaching and research costs much more today than before the war.

Hundreds of schools have committed themselves for several years ahead to the amortization of building and equipment bonds; others have given tenure to large staffs of faculty. It is true that there have been many "expert" guesses on future enrollments in our colleges and universities. Prophets in the field of higher education can become overenthusiastic, however! It falls back on the individual business officer in every individual college to carefully study the problems of his own school in relation to the experiences of business officers in other schools, and give his president and his board conscientious counsel and advice, even though it may counter to estimates of the academicians.

We should welcome the so-called plateau. No one really knows what will follow 1940-49. Much will depend upon the type of defense laws which Congress enacts. But when this enrollment decrease comes to many of us in 1948-49 or in 1949-50 one thing is certain. It is no time to become panicky. We should welcome it as a time to settle down and spend more hours studying projected operating programs and budgets so that we can really be ready for either the bursting bubble or the spiraling enrollments of the 50's.

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY BUILDING NEEDS FOR THE NEXT DECADE

By ERNEST V. HOLLIS¹

United States Office of Education

American colleges and universities have 341,550,000 square feet of building space and need an additional 265,000,000 square feet in order to accommodate enrollments anticipated by 1950. This proposed increase of 78 per cent in the present plant is approximately equivalent to 133 Empire State or 76 Pentagon Buildings. At 1948 prices the additional space would cost approximately \$2,650,000,000. With land, equipment, and miscellaneous costs added, the total would exceed \$3,500,000,000. In addition, provision must be made for obsolescence cumulated during the war, for the customary loss of buildings by calamities, for higher educational standards, and for the plant needs of new institutions. These capital costs added to the preceding estimates would bring the total to \$5,000,000,000.

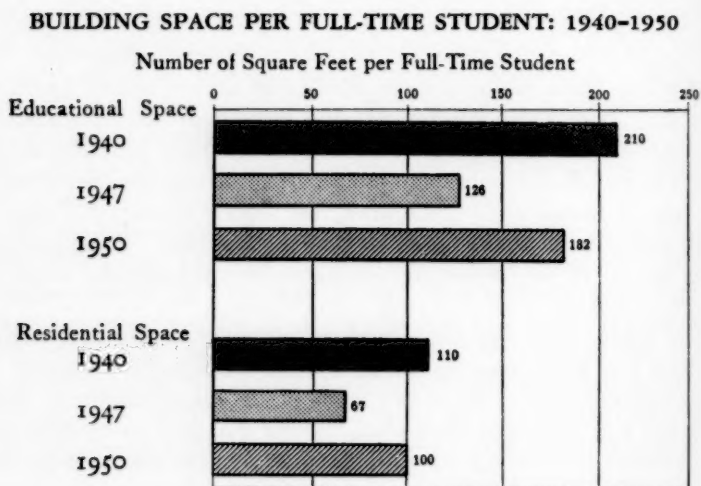
The tremendous demand for more educational and residential housing has been brought about by the enrollment of nearly a million more students than the prewar plants accommodated. The shortage has also been intensified by the inability to replace obsolete structures and losses of buildings during the war, and by the necessity for housing new programs required in providing education for veterans. College plants built for a prewar peak gross enrollment of 1,500,000 students were in the fall of 1947 accommodating in some fashion a total of 2,340,000 students, and college officials expect a gross enrollment of 2,675,000 students by 1950.

Gross figures on building space in relation to enrollment are more easily comprehended when they are shown as the number of square feet of space per student. This ratio is more accurate for the coun-

¹ Written in collaboration with a number of associates in the central and field offices of the Veterans Educational Facilities Program of the U. S. Office of Education.

try as a whole and, with a dozen or so exceptions, for individual institutions, if it is expressed in terms of full-time enrollment at a given period instead of by cumulative annual enrollment which does not reflect the number of students enrolled at any one time and which also usually includes part-time and extension students. Buildings and equipment obviously are needed only for the largest number of students present at any one time. Such ratios are also made more meaningful by separating residential from educational space because institutional responsibility for the two types of housing is determined by different general and local factors.

Figure 1



The relative adequacy of existing and projected educational and residential housing per full-time student for the years 1940, 1947, and 1950 is shown graphically in Figure 1. This chart shows that in 1947 colleges had approximately 40 per cent less educational and residential space per full-time student than they had in 1940, the prewar peak of enrollment. The 210 square feet per student for the year 1940 is not based upon an actual census of building space but is estimated upon the assumption that the colleges in 1940 had substantially the same amount of building space reported in March,

1947. Figure 1 also shows that if the increase in gross space needed is erected by 1950, institutions of higher education will than have 14 per cent less space per full-time student than it is estimated they had in 1940. The space per student shown in the chart, of course, is not net instructional space; it includes service, maintenance, and other auxiliary buildings. Full-time student figures of 210 square feet for educational space and 110 square feet for residential space indicate estimated prewar status rather than standards or norms that are recommended for judging the quantitative adequacy of future buildings.

Summary figures in the preceding paragraphs and the more detailed analysis which follows were made possible through a survey of existing and needed building space conducted by the Veterans Educational Facilities Program. The V.E.F.P., administered jointly by the Bureau of Community Facilities of the Federal Works Agency and the Division of Higher Education of the U. S. Office of Education, has responsibility for providing war surplus buildings, equipment, and supplies to schools and colleges which require them in providing programs of education for veterans. For its administrative purposes, the V.E.F.P. asked 1386 participating colleges, which enrolled 96 per cent of the Nation's 1947 college population, to list their present and needed (by 1950) building space by uses (classrooms, laboratories, storage, etc.) and to relate the total to actual and expected enrollments up to 1960. Institutions which enrolled the unreported four per cent of college students are estimated to have 16,000,000 square feet of space and probably will not need additional buildings for expansion. The space reports are for the most part a combination of estimates and actual measurements but even crude figures have not heretofore been collected on a national basis in the field of higher education.

The remainder of this article is devoted to an analysis and synthesis of some of the data supplied for the V.E.F.P. survey. A more comprehensive report will be issued as a 1948 bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education. In order to avoid confusion perhaps it should be stated at this point that figures quoted from the V.E.F.P. survey in Volume V of the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education were from a preliminary tabulation. Moreover, inasmuch as the V.E.F.P. survey was not concerned with the

total program that ought to be offered in higher education, nor with the total number of students who ought to be served, it does not estimate building needs in terms of a comprehensive ideal program. It merely reports the present intentions and ambitions of leaders for the colleges and universities they now administer.

Materials which follow are organized to show present and needed building space separately for educational purposes and for residential housing. The section on educational space shows by use and by type of institution the distribution of present and needed space. It also indicates what the Federal Government and the institutions themselves are doing now to meet the emergency. The section devoted to residential housing presents a more condensed statement of the pertinent facts on housing for single and married students, for faculty members, and for nonprofessional staff members.

Educational Space

In estimating the need for additional educational space the obvious beginning point, aside from enrollment, is a determination of how many square feet of such space colleges and universities now have. But prior to the V.E.F.P. survey in 1947 it was not possible to list for the Nation or any of its political subdivisions the per student or gross amount of existing space, much less to show a distribution of the space by types of institutions and by major types of use. This section will present such status figures in square feet for their normative value in appraising statements of additional need.

Educational space is used, in the absence of more exact nomenclature, to include all college structures other than those required as residential housing for students and staff members. The 222,500,000 square feet of present educational space, for example, includes maintenance, service, and other auxiliary space as well as that used for instruction, research, and administration. The five types of institutions of higher education are those used in grouping institutions in the U. S. Office of Education *Directory*. The twelve major categories of space use follow such well-known designations as classroom, library, laboratory, and the like.

Distribution by Types of Institutions

Table 1 shows the distribution among five types of publicly and privately controlled colleges of the 222,500,000 square feet of space which was available for educational purposes in the spring of 1947. While comparisons of present space among the several types of institutions are meaningful *per se*, the primary purpose of Table 1 is to establish a frame of reference for use in interpreting the distribution of additional educational space (see Table 2) which 1386 colleges declare they need now and for increases in enrollment expected by 1950. The fact that the 1947 ratio of 126 square feet of floor space per student is 40 per cent less than the 1940 figure of 210

TABLE 1—EDUCATIONAL BUILDING SPACE BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, 1947
(Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet)

| Type of Institution | All Institutions | | Publicly Controlled Institutions | | Privately Controlled Institutions | |
|--|------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | Total Amount | Per Full-Time Student | Amount | Per Full-Time Student | Amount | Per Full-Time Student |
| All institutions | 222,489 | 126 | 119,738 | 124 | 102,751 | 128 |
| Universities | 104,316 | 120 | 64,446 | 121 | 39,871 | 117 |
| Colleges of arts and sciences | 52,875 | 128 | 9,045 | 114 | 43,830 | 131 |
| Professional and technological schools | 27,249 | 161 | 14,825 | 172 | 12,423 | 150 |
| Teachers colleges and normal schools | 19,687 | 143 | 18,974 | 144 | 713 | 137 |
| Junior colleges | 18,362 | 102 | 12,448 | 91 | 5,914 | 130 |

square feet per full-time student indicates that nearly half of the 169,000,000 square feet of additional space (see Table 2) is needed immediately, unless veterans and other postwar students are to be more crowded than were prewar college and university students. If colleges get the amounts of additional educational space and the enrollments they envision by 1950, Table 2 indicates they then will have only 182 square feet per full-time student, which is 14 per cent less than was available in 1940.

From an isolated study of the distribution of needed additional educational space shown in the first column of figures in Table 2, one would conclude that "the big get bigger" applies to educational

TABLE 2—COMBINED PRESENT AND ADDITIONAL EDUCATIONAL SPACE NEEDED BY 1950
(Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet)

| Type of Institution | Present and Needed Educational Space | | | | | | Needed Additional Space | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------|---------------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|
| | All Institutions | | | Publicly Controlled | | | Privately Controlled | | | |
| | Grand Total | Per Student | Per Institution | Grand Total | Per Student | Per Institution | Grand Total | Per Student | Per Institution | Grand Total |
| All institutions | 391,763 | 182 | 219,781 | 181 | 171,982 | 183 | 169,274 | 100,043 | 69,231 | |
| Universities | 181,611 | 180 | 118,555 | 183 | 63,056 | 174 | 77,295 | 54,109 | 23,186 | |
| Colleges of arts and sciences | 92,626 | 180 | 17,435 | 169 | 75,198 | 183 | 39,751 | 8,391 | 31,360 | |
| Professional and technological schools | 46,905 | 226 | 26,308 | 234 | 20,597 | 216 | 19,656 | 11,482 | 6,174 | |
| Teachers colleges and normal schools | 33,658 | 180 | 32,268 | 179 | 1,390 | 215 | 13,970 | 13,294 | 677 | |
| Junior colleges | 36,964 | 157 | 25,215 | 144 | 11,748 | 192 | 18,602 | 12,767 | 5,834 | |

institutions as well as to some other institutions. Universities and related institutions of complex character, for example, are asking for nearly half of the total of additional needed space. But when the first column of figures in Table 2 is studied alongside the first column of Table 1, which shows the distribution of present space, it becomes evident that universities do not envision a rate of expansion as great as junior colleges. It is also significant to note that except among the colleges of arts and sciences approximately two-thirds of the capital outlay for buildings may be expected to

TABLE 3—PRESENT EDUCATIONAL BUILDING SPACE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO USE
(Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet)

| Use of Space | All Institutions | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Total | Per Full-Time Student | Publicly Controlled Institutions | Privately Controlled Institutions |
| All facilities | 222,489 | 126 | 119,738 | 102,751 |
| Classroom | 52,740 | 30 | 26,267 | 26,473 |
| Laboratory | 35,563 | 20 | 19,330 | 16,234 |
| Instructional Shop | 7,025 | 4 | 5,297 | 1,728 |
| Administrative and Faculty Office | 19,165 | 11 | 10,155 | 9,010 |
| Library and Study Hall | 17,054 | 10 | 7,701 | 9,353 |
| Cafeteria and Food Service | 11,851 | 7 | 5,848 | 6,003 |
| Gymnasium | 24,868 | 14 | 13,401 | 11,467 |
| Auditorium | 10,102 | 6 | 4,934 | 5,168 |
| Student Center | 7,059 | 4 | 4,131 | 2,927 |
| Infirmery | 7,418 | 4 | 3,673 | 3,744 |
| Service and Maintenance | 12,539 | 7 | 7,074 | 5,465 |
| Miscellaneous | 17,105 | 9 | 11,926 | 5,179 |

come from taxation rather than from gifts and bequests. Many readers will marvel at the optimism and courage which impels privately controlled colleges to increase their facilities by one-third when they know that such expansions increase the difficulties of securing adequate current support. Privately controlled colleges typically raise approximately one-third of their current operating budgets from philanthropic sources.

The factual comparisons and inferences that may be drawn from a study of the space distributions shown in Tables 1 and 2 are limited primarily by the interest and ingenuity of the reader. He may, for example, be interested in drawing inferences from the fact

that publicly controlled institutions have 54 per cent of existing educational space and expect to erect two-thirds of the total additional needed space. He, of course, will also note that publicly controlled institutions now have less space per student than private colleges and expect to have less in 1950. Other readers may be interested in pondering the meaning for the future of the 1947 and 1950 distributions of space among the five types of institutions shown in Tables 1 and 2. The initiated will not need to be reminded that in laboratory and shop space per student, professional and technological schools exceed other categories of institutions, or that the small amount of actual space in public junior colleges is accounted for in part by space in buildings which they use jointly with high schools but cannot report as their own. Table 2 makes it evident that they are planning to correct the current space deficiency.

Distribution of Space by Use

Architects and contractors as well as educators plan buildings and estimate costs primarily in terms of the use to which space is to be put. Equipment manufacturers and contractors also arrange production schedules according to the nature and quantity of space to be made available for educational use in a given period. In projecting building needs for the enrollment at a designated institution it is, accordingly, important to know the amount of space per student commonly allocated for classrooms, laboratories, and the like. In planning for the space needs of an individual college it is also useful for normative purposes to know the prevailing national pattern of gross space distribution by major functions.

Table 3 shows by 12 common categories of use the distribution of gross space devoted to educational purposes in 1947. It also shows as a ratio of gross space to full-time enrollment the number of square feet per full-time student. Publicly controlled colleges had 54 per cent of the total space, and the only significant variations by categories show public colleges had a predominant proportion of instructional shop and miscellaneous space while privately controlled colleges had 55 per cent of the library and study hall space. The pattern of distribution among the 12 types of space shows that slightly less than one-fourth of all college educational space is used

for classroom purposes, one-fifth for laboratory and instructional shop, gymnasiums being the only other category to receive more than 10 per cent.

The prevailing pattern is evidently acceptable to college officials as is indicated by the distribution of needed additional space which is shown in Table 4. When the amounts of present and needed space are consolidated, the projected pattern is very similar to the actual one. There is a slight tendency to increase the pro-

TABLE 4—COMBINED PRESENT AND ADDITIONAL EDUCATIONAL SPACE NEEDED BY 1950

| Use of Space | (Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet) | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|-------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Combined Present and Needed Space | | Needed Additional Space | | |
| | Total | Per Student | All Institutions | Publicly Controlled Institutions | Privately Controlled Institutions |
| All facilities | 391,763 | 182 | 169,274 | 100,043 | 69,231 |
| Classroom | 88,996 | 41 | 36,256 | 22,212 | 14,044 |
| Laboratory | 66,122 | 31 | 30,559 | 19,163 | 11,396 |
| Instructional Shop | 14,631 | 7 | 7,606 | 5,929 | 1,677 |
| Administrative and Faculty Office | 29,486 | 14 | 10,321 | 6,072 | 4,249 |
| Library and Study Hall | 31,200 | 14 | 14,146 | 7,416 | 6,730 |
| Cafeteria and Food Service | 19,291 | 9 | 7,440 | 4,083 | 3,357 |
| Gymnasium | 46,669 | 22 | 21,801 | 11,076 | 10,725 |
| Auditorium | 18,917 | 9 | 8,815 | 4,485 | 4,330 |
| Student Center | 18,653 | 9 | 11,594 | 7,182 | 4,412 |
| Infirmary | 13,315 | 6 | 5,897 | 3,263 | 2,634 |
| Service and Maintenance | 20,432 | 9 | 7,893 | 4,879 | 3,014 |
| Other | 24,052 | 11 | 6,947 | 4,284 | 2,663 |

portion of space devoted to student centers, gymnasiums, libraries, and laboratories. These new emphases perhaps reflect the regimen of training and recreation provided by the Army and Navy during World War II.

Space Provided by Federal Government

Neither sufficient funds, building materials, nor equipment have been available from commercial sources to provide the 169,274,000 square feet of additional educational space as rapidly as it has been needed to overcome shortages due to increasing enrollments. In

the spring of 1947, colleges reported assurance of only enough funds to construct 26 per cent of the building space they needed, and this assurance included commitments of the Federal Government to provide temporary buildings from war surplus structures. This section sketches what the Government is doing to meet emergency needs and the succeeding section outlines the effort colleges are making to provide more permanent buildings for educational purposes.

College and university need for additional space due to the enrollment of more than a million veterans became so urgent that in August, 1946 the Congress authorized the U. S. Commissioner of Education to make a determination of actual and impending shortages of educational buildings and equipment. There was appropriated to the Federal Works Agency \$84,650,000 for administration and for use in dismantling, removing, and re-erecting on school and college campuses available war-surplus buildings required to meet the needs certified by the Commissioner of Education. At the end of 1947 the Veterans Educational Facilities Program had determined that acute shortages of buildings required in providing a program of education for veterans existed in 1150 institutions in the amount of 23,000,000 square feet. At that time the Federal Works Agency had completed or had under construction 16,500,000 square feet of space to which most of its appropriation had been allocated. The Federal expenditure to date has averaged approximately \$5.00 per square foot or 33 cents per cubic foot, and has provided facilities estimated to be worth \$150,000,000. This emergency program has given institutions of higher education 38 per cent of the 44,000,000 square feet of educational space for which the V.E.F.P. survey indicated they had funds or other means available.

In addition, colleges and universities have secured from War Assets Administration perhaps \$100,000,000 worth of land, buildings, and equipment through the Surplus Property Utilization section of the U. S. Office of Education. A considerable part of the equipment has been donated by the Army, Navy, and other Federal owning agencies but the land and buildings have been provided through the real property disposal unit of the W.A.A. Counting only the transfers where W.A.A. fair value exceeded

\$100,000 each, at the end of 1947, 42 publicly and privately controlled colleges and universities in 22 states had received 40,620 acres of land, 2850 buildings, and large amounts of equipment for use in both educational programs and residential housing. The W.A.A. fair value of these transfers approximated \$32,000,000 but the cost to institutions of higher education was only \$1,231,000. It is estimated that 65 per cent of this Federal contribution to the capital needs of colleges should be credited to educational purposes and 35 per cent to residential housing for single and married students and faculty members. Title to most of this property has been obtained subsequent to the March, 1947 V.E.F.P. survey. Moreover, it does not include facilities made available by W.A.A. to colleges for temporary use pending the construction of permanent facilities of their own or transfer of title to the institutions.

Space Provided by the Colleges

It will be recalled that in March, 1947 college officials had no assurance of funds for three-fourths of the educational buildings they needed by 1950. The temporary buildings provided by the Government were admittedly a costly stopgap measure aimed at enabling the colleges partially to keep pace with increases in enrollment until they could get their own permanent building programs underway. Even though it is generally acknowledged that some of the "temporary" buildings will be in use 25 years hence, it is equally clear that most of them must be replaced in from five to eight years. Therefore, unless funds for permanent construction become available at an accelerated rate colleges will be able to do little more by 1950 than replace temporary buildings, structures obsolescent when we entered the Second World War, and buildings normally lost by fire and other major calamities. This fact is pointed up by noting that when the Government contribution to assured educational space is deducted, the colleges reported funds available to build only 16 per cent of the additional space they need. These funds would add only 12 per cent to the space they now have.

Subsequent events indicate that college officials were both timid and conservative in estimating the additional funds taxpayers and philanthropists were willing to provide. The February, 1948 issue

of *Fortune* estimates that the privately controlled colleges of the country are attempting to raise \$2,000,000,000 for endowment and capital outlay purposes. Since the close of the war, state legislatures and other tax appropriating bodies have been asked for at least an equal amount for capital outlay purposes. California, for example, has appropriated \$100,000,000 to its state university for these purposes. Nevertheless, in March, 1947 the college leaders of the country reported resources which would provide only \$275,000,000 worth of educational buildings.

In order to get an estimate of the change in outlook and building activities of college officials between March and October, 1947, and to sample the effect of inflation in building costs on the actual expenditure of available funds, the Veterans Educational Facilities Program made a spot check on the situation in 106 colleges and universities located in 43 states. These institutions, evidently in better circumstances than the average, had approximately one-fourth of all educational space available in 1947 and enrolled one-fifth of the students then attending college. They reported \$240,300,000 available for capital outlay purposes, and that \$80,250,000 of this amount was under contract or in actual construction. Inasmuch as this group of institutions also had been authorized to spend \$42,300,000 for self-liquidating projects it is estimated that not more than a minor portion of the \$240,300,000 was allocated to residential housing for students and faculty.

Shifts in the building activities and intentions of the 106 institutions between March and October, 1947 is indicated by the fact that approximately 3,000,000 square feet of additional educational space had been completed. This represented an increase of 5.3 per cent over the educational space available in March. Moreover, within this six-month period these institutions added 5,280,000 square feet to the space for which they had assurance of funds for early construction. Furthermore, the sights of their leaders had been raised to the point of adding to their March, 1947 estimates 17,663,000 square feet of needed space for which at the time they had no plans of financing.

It is not statistically feasible to use the findings from the 106 colleges and universities as a sample for estimating comparable figures in the Nation's colleges as a whole. One may be sure, how-

ever, that the improved situation which characterized these institutions is not true to the same degree for the other colleges which enroll four-fifths of the students. Nevertheless, the sights of the leaders of the rest of the colleges have undoubtedly been raised to meet the tremendous task they face.

Residential Housing

According to the 1947 V.E.F.P. survey of 1386 colleges which enrolled 96 per cent of the students, 119,060,000 square feet or approximately one-third (35 per cent) of the total building space was in the form of residential housing for students and staff members. One-fourth of the colleges and universities did not maintain any form of residential housing. Among colleges which provide

TABLE 5—COMBINED PRESENT AND ADDITIONAL RESIDENTIAL HOUSING SPACE NEEDED BY 1950

(Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet)

| Type of Residence | Combined Present and Needed | | Present | | Additional Needed | |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------|---------|----------|----------------------|----------|
| | Amount | Per Cent | Amount | Per Cent | Amount | Per Cent |
| Totals | 214,629 | 100.0 | 119,060 | 100.0 | 95,569 | 100.0 |
| Single students | 138,627 | 64.6 | 80,677 | 67.8 | 57,950 | 60.6 |
| Married students | 43,364 | 20.2 | 20,182 | 17.0 | 23,182 | 24.3 |
| Faculty members | 27,317 | 12.7 | 14,784 | 12.4 | 12,533 | 13.1 |
| Miscellaneous | 5,321 | 2.5 | 3,417 | 2.9 | 1,904 | 2.0 |

such facilities, the character and amount of living quarters seem to be governed largely by size and character of the community, by location, by institutional resources, by institutional policy, and by type of institution.

The colleges reported a need for 95,569,000 square feet of additional residential housing, which is 80 per cent more than their present residential space. Due to the operation of the factors mentioned in the preceding paragraph, the space per full-time student is not nearly so meaningful an index for residential space as it is for educational space. Nevertheless, there may be some normative value in knowing that in 1947 there was 67 square feet of residential housing per full-time student enrolled (not per student housed). If colleges secure the needed additional space, it together

with their present space will bring the total of residential space in 1950 to approximately 100 square feet per full-time student. State and regional variations in space per student for 1947 and 1950 are shown in Table 6.

Table 5 shows separately for four major groups of persons the present residential space alongside the additional needed, and the total of the two categories. About two-thirds of the 1947 space is in the form of accommodations for single students, one-sixth for married students, and one-eighth for faculty members. If the colleges succeed in financing and constructing the additional residential space needed to accommodate their enlarged student bodies, the proportion of space available to the different groups housed will vary only slightly from the 1947 pattern of distribution. Specifically, there will be an increase from 17 to 20 per cent of the total residential space allocated for married students and their families. It, of course, must be remembered that the 1947 pattern of housing differed markedly from the 1940 pattern because four-fifths of the Federal Public Housing Authority accommodations were for married veterans and their families.

To assist the colleges in meeting the housing needs of veterans and their families, the Congress authorized F.P.H.A. to engage in a re-use housing program. At the close of 1947 it had spent \$156,000,000 in dismantling, removing, re-erecting, and equipping war surplus buildings for residential use by veterans enrolled in colleges. Under this program F.P.H.A. estimates it will provide and equip about 7,000,000 square feet of temporary dormitory space for single students and approximately 31,000,000 square feet for family accommodations. In addition to its Federally financed veterans re-use housing program, F.P.H.A. transferred to colleges title for additional buildings and equipment which were moved by the institutions without expense to the Federal Government. The law authorizing residential structures provided by F.P.H.A. required these buildings to be dismantled by July 25, 1949. The statute was amended in the closing days of the 80th Congress so as to remove this restriction and transfer to the colleges all Federal interest in the property.

Through the educational benefits program of the Real Property Division of War Assets Administration, sketched in an earlier sec-

tion of this article, colleges received on-site transfers of land, buildings, and equipment for student and faculty residential use. The W.A.A. fair value of these transfers is estimated to exceed \$11,000,000. Moreover, W.A.A. and owning agencies have given colleges interim permits and short-term leases (at nominal costs) to use for the emergency as much other Federally owned residential housing as has been transferred to them.

At least \$1,000,000,000 would be required to build the 95,569,000 square feet of residential housing reported as needed in March, 1947. Perhaps one-fifth of this need is being supplied for the time being by the F.P.H.A. re-use veterans housing program. In the spring of 1947 colleges indicated they were assured of 36,342,000 square feet of temporary and permanent residential housing. This leaves the majority of the need still unmet.

Data from the partial resurvey of 106 colleges and universities, referred to in the preceding section, indicated that between March and October, 1947 they had added 4,130,000 square feet to their housing facilities. Perhaps most of this increment came from F.P.H.A. re-use housing and represented a 15 per cent increase over the housing the same colleges reported in use in the spring of 1947. Moreover, they also added 5,500,000 square feet to the March, 1947 estimate of needed residential housing. Thirty of these colleges and universities reported that they had been authorized to issue revenue bonds for self-liquidating projects, mostly dormitories. These colleges, which are not waiting for gifts or appropriations to finance their needed housing, have secured from their respective legislatures and boards of control authorization for \$42,300,000 of such bonds. During the calendar year 1947, they issued \$18,500,000 of the total amount authorized.

Distribution of Space by States

When the people of a state are shown data on the national building situation of colleges they usually want to know the position of their own state or region in relation to the Nation. Legislators, financiers, educators, architects, contractors, and business men who provide equipment, furnishings, and consumable supplies for college buildings—each in his own way—have a special

TABLE 6—PRESENT AND FUTURE BUILDING SPACE PER FULL-TIME STUDENT AND THE TOTAL ADDITIONAL BUILDING SPACE

(Gross Space in Thousands of Square Feet)

| F.W.A. Division and State | Space per Full-Time Student | | | | Total Additional Space |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | Educational Space 1947 | Educational Space 1950 | Residential Space 1947 | Residential Space 1950 | |
| United States | 126 | 182 | 67 | 100 | 264,833 |
| Division 1 | 147 | 199 | 85 | 109 | 37,909 |
| Connecticut | 202 | 220 | 166 | 187 | 2,690 |
| Maine | 212 | 265 | 132 | 146 | 970 |
| Massachusetts | 207 | 242 | 93 | 106 | 5,512 |
| New Hampshire | 247 | 353 | 246 | 261 | 885 |
| New Jersey | 121 | 226 | 55 | 69 | 6,769 |
| New York | 111 | 164 | 63 | 95 | 18,720 |
| Rhode Island | 147 | 164 | 98 | 107 | 968 |
| Vermont | 233 | 290 | 248 | 261 | 1,395 |
| Division 2 | 119 | 169 | 56 | 89 | 36,205 |
| Delaware | 124 | 133 | 45 | 61 | 154 |
| District of Columbia | 104 | 131 | 44 | 73 | 1,975 |
| Maryland | 108 | 159 | 55 | 75 | 2,659 |
| Ohio | 98 | 149 | 59 | 84 | 10,576 |
| Pennsylvania | 132 | 184 | 56 | 82 | 10,669 |
| Virginia | 164 | 250 | 67 | 156 | 7,496 |
| West Virginia | 70 | 123 | 46 | 74 | 2,676 |
| Division 3 | 140 | 207 | 98 | 148 | 42,853 |
| Alabama | 159 | 232 | 107 | 144 | 7,140 |
| Florida | 80 | 142 | 97 | 180 | 6,104 |
| Georgia | 112 | 187 | 83 | 135 | 6,068 |
| Mississippi | 139 | 207 | 132 | 171 | 4,105 |
| North Carolina | 176 | 244 | 102 | 147 | 7,937 |
| South Carolina | 157 | 170 | 95 | 134 | 3,859 |
| Tennessee | 140 | 237 | 83 | 135 | 7,640 |
| Division 4 | 137 | 193 | 56 | 94 | 42,821 |
| Illinois | 149 | 195 | 42 | 78 | 11,465 |
| Indiana | 143 | 187 | 77 | 129 | 7,329 |
| Kentucky | 162 | 199 | 62 | 105 | 5,667 |
| Michigan | 124 | 191 | 58 | 96 | 13,543 |
| Wisconsin | 123 | 150 | 60 | 72 | 4,817 |
| Division 5 | 129 | 181 | 52 | 86 | 28,889 |
| Iowa | 141 | 197 | 67 | 110 | 6,973 |
| Kansas | 129 | 156 | 49 | 85 | 4,520 |
| Minnesota | 129 | 194 | 45 | 74 | 6,754 |
| Missouri | 116 | 167 | 45 | 81 | 5,997 |
| Nebraska | 150 | 171 | 38 | 53 | 1,734 |
| North Dakota | 189 | 232 | 71 | 110 | 1,735 |
| South Dakota | 176 | 194 | 86 | 124 | 1,176 |
| Division 6 | 96 | 153 | 69 | 106 | 27,465 |
| Arkansas | 130 | 175 | 107 | 126 | 2,322 |
| Louisiana | 101 | 146 | 85 | 111 | 3,843 |
| Oklahoma | 92 | 131 | 66 | 88 | 5,365 |
| Texas | 90 | 161 | 59 | 110 | 15,935 |
| Division 7 | 96 | 162 | 46 | 61 | 22,087 |
| Arizona | 131 | 184 | 85 | 103 | 1,113 |
| California | 91 | 159 | 44 | 57 | 20,266 |
| Hawaii | 115 | 143 | 8 | 60 | 279 |

TABLE 6—(Continued)

| F.W.A. Division and State | Space per Full-Time Student— | | Residential Space | | Total Additional Space |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|------|-------------------|------|------------------------|
| | Educational Space | 1950 | 1947 | 1950 | |
| Nevada | 192 | 365 | 158 | 196 | 429 |
| Division 8 | 140 | 209 | 102 | 119 | 16,332 |
| Alaska | 385 | 294 | 214 | 184 | 124 |
| Idaho | 233 | 322 | 175 | 255 | 3,416 |
| Montana | 151 | 258 | 69 | 103 | 2,179 |
| Oregon | 116 | 184 | 154 | 164 | 3,875 |
| Washington | 129 | 187 | 57 | 66 | 6,738 |
| Division 9 | 113 | 179 | 50 | 98 | 9,890 |
| Colorado | 100 | 169 | 63 | 89 | 3,623 |
| New Mexico | 117 | 207 | 82 | 139 | 2,439 |
| Utah | 130 | 174 | 15 | 79 | 2,782 |
| Wyoming | 103 | 207 | 77 | 145 | 1,046 |
| Puerto Rico and Canal Zone | 95 | 122 | ... | 22 | 382 |

practical interest in seeing a geographical distribution of information on the building needs of colleges.

The state by state distribution of the nearly 265,000,000 square feet of space which colleges yet need for educational and residential purposes is presented in Table 6. In addition, it shows the number of square feet of both educational and residential housing per full-time student as of March, 1947 and as it will be in 1950 if colleges get the additional space they say they need. In the absence of any generally accepted regional grouping of the states, the state totals were consolidated into the nine geographical divisions used by the Federal Works Agency and the U. S. Office of Education for administering the Veterans Educational Facilities Program.

The uses to which the information in Table 6 can be put are many and varied. The data for selected states in F.W.A. Division 1 illustrate these uses. Architects, contractors, and equipment dealers who consider Massachusetts, for example, in their territory may find it useful to know that the colleges and universities of the State need to add 5,512,000 square feet of space to their present plants. It does not follow that the V.E.F.P. section of the U. S. Office of Education will send anyone a list of institutions which shows the nature and amount of space each has or needs.

Legislators, college trustees, college presidents, and business officers can also use the information in Table 6. New York or New

Jersey educators, for example, may use national, regional, and state figures of residential space per student in support of New York's request for an increase from 63 to 95 square feet per student or that of New Jersey for an increase from 55 to 69 square feet. However, it would be a misuse to argue that these two rich urban-industrial states should provide the 261 square feet per student which New Hampshire and Vermont want, or even the 248 square feet per student which Vermont now has. Legislators and philanthropists are cautioned against arbitrarily using these data to deny funds for additional construction at institutions which already have space per student in excess of national, regional, or state averages. Due to special circumstances, institutions in Vermont, for example, may be justified in seeking 1,395,000 square feet of additional building space even though the colleges now have an average of 233 and 248 square feet per student, respectively, for educational and residential purposes.

Applications of the character warned against in the preceding paragraphs violate most of the socially sound axioms on differences in the space requirements of colleges due to location, size of institution, concentration and nature of population, and institutional policy. Moreover, the earlier caution on the use of status figures for normative purposes is reinforced by the inherent institutional differences listed in the preceding sentence. In developing plans for plant expansion, institutions usually are guided by their own needs, purposes, and resources as much as by averages which frequently conceal as much as they reveal.

Conclusion

A composite picture of college and university building needs for the next decade has been made from the generally conservative reports of presidents and business officers. It is not the picture of an ideal plant required to provide suitable college programs for all qualified individuals. It is the amount of space practical administrators believe is required to provide educational and residential housing for prevailing programs of higher education for the 2,800,000 students expected to be in attendance in 1960.

The V.E.F.P. report presented an analysis of the 341,500,000

square feet of plant which the colleges now have and their need for an additional 265,000,000 square feet of buildings. It has also sketched the activities of the Federal Government in providing temporary facilities and the efforts of the colleges in building permanent structures. The difficulty in meeting college building needs has been greatly intensified by the current inflation of construction costs, which on the average are now twice those of 1940. In addition to space provided prior to March, 1947, the Government has constructed or is in the process of constructing 31,000,000 square feet of war re-use buildings for the colleges, and the colleges themselves have funds in hand or in sight to build an estimated 48,000,000 square feet of permanent buildings. Together this accounts for 30 per cent of their needs and is estimated to be worth approximately \$1,000,000,000.

The serious question, which the V.E.F.P. report does not attempt to answer, is how colleges will get the \$2,500,000,000 required to complete and equip the additional buildings needed or the \$1,500,000,000 likely to be required for replacements, for meeting higher standards, for colleges not covered by the survey, and for new college ventures. Since two-thirds of the building space is sought by tax-supported institutions, presumably that proportion of the cost will come from taxpayers. However, no one is at all sure that taxpayers and philanthropists together will by 1950 or even 1960 be willing to add to present commitments enough funds to total \$5,000,000,000.

REPORT OF THE 1948 NOMINATING COMMITTEE

The 1948 Nominating Committee of the American Association of University Professors, called together pursuant to the provisions of By-Law 1 of the Association's Constitution, herewith submits its report making nominations for membership on the Association's Council for the three-year term, 1949-1951. The Committee met on Saturday, July 10, 1948, in the central office of the Association in Washington, D. C. The membership should note that By-Law 1 also provides that additional nominations may be made by petitions, signed by 50 members of the Association resident in the district from which the Council member is to be chosen with not more than ten of the signers from a single Chapter.

Before proceeding to the work of drawing up a slate of nominees, the Committee spent some time in deliberating upon the factors to be considered in making nominations with a view to obtaining a balanced distribution of professional representation. We invited the General Secretary of the Association to sit with us in an advisory capacity during these deliberations. It was, of course, assumed that nominees selected should be persons whose professional standing and integrity would maintain the high prestige of the Association and whose interest in the principles and work of the Association demonstrated by past performance would assure the conscientious fulfillment of their duties as members of the Council. With this as the fundamental core of our deliberations we associated other peripheral considerations in the selection of nominees: (1) nomination of members who have not served previously on the Council; (2) nomination of members from institutions from whose faculties Council nominees had never been or had not recently been elected; (3) a fair proportion of nominees from smaller colleges; (4) a reasonable proportion of nominees from teachers colleges; and (5) a balanced distribution from the several fields of learning.

It was heartening to have before us a large number of names of members suggested by members of the Association to be considered for Council nomination. To a great extent our chief difficulty lay not in finding enough suitable timber measuring up to the standards we had set for ourselves, but in restricting our choice to two nominees and two or three alternates from each district. Our task in this respect would have been well nigh impossible had it not been for the help of the Association's Secretariat in making available to us in advance of our meeting pertinent material concerning each of those who had been suggested for Council nomination. The Committee was deeply impressed by the efficiency with which the many suggestions from the membership had been organized and the pertinent data concerning these persons assembled, a task that must certainly have been long and arduous. The Committee wishes to thank the Secretariat for its invaluable assistance.

LUCIUS GASTON MOFFATT (Romance Languages),
University of Virginia, *Chairman*

JEWELL HUGHES BUSHEY (Mathematics), Hunter
College

CLAIR FRANCIS LITTELL (History and Political
Science), Cornell College

Nominees for the Council, 1949-51¹

DISTRICT I

JOSEPH W. INCE, Chemistry, Rhode Island State College

Elected 1917.² Chap. Pres., 1944-46.

Born 1880. A.B., 1902, A.M., 1904, Brown University; postgraduate study, 1906-08, McGill University. Assistant, 1902-04, Brown University; Instructor, 1905, Denison University; Demonstrator, 1905-08, McGill University; Instructor, Professor, 1908-19, North Dakota Agricultural College; Professor and Head of Department, 1919- , Rhode Island State College.

¹ Ten members to be elected, one from each of the geographical districts.

² Refers in this and each following statement to the date of election to Association membership.

ROSE E. MARTIN, Spanish, Middlebury College

Elected 1945. Chap. Secy., 1946-47.

Born 1895. A.B., 1916, New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York; M.A., 1929, Middlebury College. Graduate fellow, 1928-29, Instructor, 1929-31, Assistant Professor, 1931-42, Associate Professor, 1942- , Middlebury College.

DISTRICT II

ROBERT LOWRY CALHOUN, Historical Theology, Yale University

Elected 1928. Chap. Pres., 1939-41.

Born 1896. B.A., 1915, Carleton College; B.D., 1918, M.A., 1919, Ph.D., 1923, Yale University; Oxford University (Lincoln College), 1919-20. Instructor, 1921-23, Carleton College; Instructor, 1923-26, Assistant Professor, 1926-32, Associate Professor, 1932-36, Professor, 1936- , Yale University.

C. H. VAN DUZER, History, Queens College

Elected 1937. Chap. Secy., 1945-47; Chap. Pres., 1947-48.

Born 1905. A.B., 1927, A.M., 1928, Syracuse University; Ph.D., 1934, Johns Hopkins University. Assistant, 1927-28, Syracuse University; Instructor, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, 1934-40, Duquesne University; Instructor, Assistant Professor, 1940- , Queens College.

DISTRICT III

J. WESLEY CHILDERS, Romance Languages, New York State College for Teachers (Albany)

Elected 1937. Chap. Secy., 1945-46; Chap. Pres., 1946-47.

Born 1906. A.B., 1927, A.M., 1928, Southern Methodist University; Diploma de Suficiencia, 1930, Centro de Estudios Historicos, Madrid, Spain; Ph.D., 1939, University of Chicago. Fellow, 1927-28, Southern Methodist University; Instructor, 1928-36, Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College; Instructor, 1936-37, Assistant Professor, 1937-41, DePauw University; Assistant Professor, 1941-46, Professor, 1946- , Chairman, Department of Modern Foreign Languages, 1947- , New York State College for Teachers (Albany).

D. KENNETH WINEBRENNER, Art Education, New York State College for Teachers (Buffalo)

Elected 1946. Chap. Secy.-Treas., 1946-48.

Born 1908. B.S., 1933, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania; M.A., 1939, Candidate for Ed.D., 1948, Teachers College of Columbia University. Instructor, 1933-39, Pennsylvania High Schools; Assistant Professor, 1939- , New York State College for Teachers (Buffalo).

DISTRICT IV

BENTLEY GLASS, Biology: Genetics, Evolution, Johns Hopkins University

Elected 1924. Chap. Pres., 1948-49.

Born 1906. A.B., 1926, M.A., 1929, Baylor University; Ph.D., 1932, University of Texas. Teacher, 1926-28, Timpson High School, Texas; Teaching Fellow, 1928-29, Baylor University; National Research Council Fellowship in Genetics, 1932-33, University of Oslo, Norway; 1933, Kaiser-Wilhelm Institut, Berlin, Germany; 1933-34, University of Missouri; Instructor, 1934-38, Stephens College; Assistant Professor, 1938-40, Associate Professor, 1940-45, Professor, 1945-47, Goucher College; Associate Professor, 1947- , Johns Hopkins University.

BOYD HARSHBARGER, Applied and Mathematical Statistics, Virginia Polytechnic Institute

Elected 1946. Chap. Pres., 1947-48.

Born 1906. B.A., 1928, Bridgewater College; M.S., 1931, Virginia Polytechnic Institute; M.A., 1935, University of Illinois; Ph.D., 1943, George Washington University. Instructor, 1929-30, Miller School; Instructor and Assistant Professor, 1931-39, Professor, 1941- , Virginia Polytechnic Institute.

DISTRICT V

JOSEPH JAMES IRWIN, English, Albion College

Elected 1932. Chap. Pres., 1946-48.

Born 1908. A.B., 1931, Grinnell College; M.A., 1934, Ph.D., 1942, State University of Iowa. Graduate Assistant, 1931-32, Grinnell College; Professor, 1934-36, Buena Vista College; Instructor, 1937-42, Assistant Professor, 1942-44, Associate Professor, 1944-47, Professor, 1947- , Albion College.

W. HAYES YEAGER, Speech, Ohio State University

Elected 1927. Chap. Pres., 1937-38, George Washington University.

Born 1897. A.B., 1919, A.M., 1926, Ohio State University; attended Columbia University, 1919-20 and University of Illinois, 1927-28. Instructor, 1923-27, Ohio State University; Associate, 1927-29, University of Illinois; Professor and Executive Officer of the Department, 1929-45, George Washington University; Professor and Chairman of the Department, 1945- , Ohio State University.

DISTRICT VI

GRAYDON S. DE LAND, Modern Languages, Florida State University

Elected 1931. Chap. Secy., 1933-39, Colgate University; Committee E on Organization and Conduct of Chapters, 1938-41.

Born 1899. A.B., 1921, Colgate University; A.M., 1926, Ph.D., 1935, University of Wisconsin. Master, 1921-22, Harrisburg Academy; Master, 1922-23, Pawling School; Assistant, 1924-25, University of Wisconsin; Instructor, 1925-29, Brown University; Instructor, 1929-30, Assistant Professor, 1930-41, Colgate University; Professor and Head of Department, 1941-48, Denison University; Professor, 1948- , Florida State University.

TOMLINSON FORT, Mathematics, University of Georgia

Elected 1928. Chap. Pres., 1935-36, Lehigh University.

Born 1886. A.B., 1906, A.M., 1909, University of Georgia; A.M., 1910, Ph.D., 1912, Harvard University. Instructor, 1907-09, University of Georgia; Instructor, 1914-15, Assistant Professor, 1915-17, University of Michigan; Professor, 1917-24, University of Alabama; Professor, 1924-27, Hunter College; Professor, 1927-45, Lehigh University; Professor, 1945- , University of Georgia.

DISTRICT VII

MILDRED F. BERRY, Speech Re-education, Rockford College

Elected 1928. Chap. Pres., 1939-41.

Born 1902. A.B., 1922, M.A., 1925, State University of Iowa; Ph.D., 1937, University of Wisconsin. Instructor, 1922-26, State University of Iowa; Assistant Professor, 1926-30, Associate Professor, 1930-37, Professor, 1937- , Rockford College; Harriet Remington Laird Fellow, 1930-31, University of Wisconsin.

BERNARD J. KOHLBRENNER, Education, University of Notre Dame

Elected 1944. Chap. Vice-Pres., 1947-48.

Born 1904. A.B., 1927, A.M., 1928, Syracuse University; Ed.D., 1942, Harvard University. Instructor, 1929-33, University of Notre Dame; Instructor, 1933-39, Assistant Professor, 1939-40, St. Louis University; Professor, 1940-45, College of New Rochelle; Associate Professor, 1945- , University of Notre Dame.

DISTRICT VIII

WILLIAM CHARLES KORFMACHER, Classical Languages, St. Louis University

Elected 1935. Chap. Secy., 1935-38; Chap. Pres., 1938-40.

Born 1900. A.B., 1922, A.M., 1923, St. Louis University; Ph.D., 1934, University of Chicago. Lecturer, 1923-25, Instructor, 1925-34, Assistant Professor, 1934-39, Associate Professor, 1939-45, Professor, 1945- , Secretary of the Department, 1929-44, Director of the Department, 1944- , Dean of University College Evening Classes, 1943- , St. Louis University.

LOWELL O. STEWART, Civil Engineering, Iowa State College

Elected 1930. Chap. Pres., 1947-48.

Born 1895. B.S., 1917, Michigan State College; M.S., 1927, C.E., 1928, Iowa State College. Instructor, 1924-27, Assistant Professor, 1927-33, Associate Professor, 1933-38, Engineering Personnel Officer, 1935-38, Professor and Head of Department, 1938- , Acting Dean of School of Engineering, 1946-47, Iowa State College.

DISTRICT IX**WARD M. MORTON, Political Science, University of Arkansas**

Elected 1940. Chap. Pres., 1947-48.

Born 1907. A.B., 1929, Southwest Texas State Teachers College; M.A., 1934, Ph.D., 1940, University of Texas. Instructor, 1937-38, University of Texas; Instructor, 1938-40, 1942-43, Assistant Professor, 1946-47, Associate Professor, 1947- , University of Arkansas; Fellow, Institute of Latin American Studies, 1941-42.

EDWIN O. STENE, Political Science, University of Kansas

Elected 1934. Chap. Secy.-Treas., 1942-45; Chap. Pres., 1945- .

Born 1900. B.A., 1923, M.A., 1929, Ph.D., 1931, University of Minnesota. Instructor, 1931-34, University of Cincinnati; Acting Assistant Professor, 1934-37, Assistant Professor, 1937-43, Associate Professor, 1943- , University of Kansas.

DISTRICT X**WILLIAM H. BROWN, Zoology, University of Arizona**

Elected 1940. Chap. Pres., 1946-47; Chap. Treas., 1947-48.

Born 1903. A.B., 1931, M.A., 1933, Ph.D., 1937, University of California. Research Associate, 1937, University of California; Assistant Professor, 1937-38, Armstrong Junior College; Instructor, 1938-40, Assistant Professor, 1940-45, Associate Professor, 1945- , University of Arizona.

CHESTER GEORGE JAEGER, Mathematics, Pomona College

Elected 1931. Chap. Secy., 1934-39; Chap. Pres., 1940-45.

Born 1896. A.B., 1920, B.S., 1921, A.M., 1924, Ph.D., 1927, University of Missouri. Instructor, 1922-28, University of Missouri; Assistant Professor, 1928-31, Tulane University; Professor and Head of Department, 1931- , Pomona College; fall term, 1945, University Study Center, Florence, Italy.

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations.

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| John B. Stetson University, De Land, Florida (October, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 377-399) | December, 1939 |
| West Chester State Teachers College West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72) | December, 1939 |
| Adelphi College, Garden City, New York (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 494-517) | December, 1941 |
| University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493) | December, 1941 |
| State Teachers College, ¹ Murfreesboro, Tennessee (December, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 662-677) | May, 1943 |
| Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina (April, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 173-176) | May, 1943 |
| Memphis State College, Memphis, Tennessee (October, 1943 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 550-580) | April, 1944 |
| University of Missouri, Columbia and Rolla, Missouri (Summer, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 278-315) | June, 1946 |
| University of Texas, Austin, Texas (Winter, 1944 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 627-634; Autumn, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 462-465; Summer, 1946 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 374-385) | June, 1946 |

¹ Now Middle Tennessee State College.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

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The following 1354 nominations for Active membership and 25 nominations for Junior membership are printed as provided by the Constitution. In accordance with action by the Council, objections to any nominee may be addressed to the General Secretary, who will in turn transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members if received within thirty days after this publication. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee any question concerning the technical eligibility of the nominee for membership as provided in the Constitution.

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Mary Haymaker, John A. F. Spellman; College of William and Mary, John C. Brunner, Kenneth Cleeton, Anne B. Haughwout, Marcel A. Reboussin, Howard M. Scammon, Jr.; Williams College, Fred H. Stocking; Wisconsin State Teachers College (Eau Claire), Lois Almon, Ruth Hoard, Mary H. Rowe, Inez D. Sparks, Anna M. Thurston, Lawrence F. Wahlstrom; Wisconsin State Teachers College (Milwaukee), Ernest A. Bellis; Wisconsin State Teachers College (River Falls), Philip S. Anderson, Leslie C. McKeen; College of Wooster, Eugene Schweigert; University of Wyoming, Rozelle Beck, John O. Goodman, Robert T. Russell, Alfred B. Stafford, Francis E. Stroup; Yankton College, Frederick Freeburne; Yeshiva University, Milton Arfa, Meyer Atlas, Sidney D. Braun, David Fleisher, Irving Linn.

Junior

Adams State College, Donald B. Hawes; University of Florida, Pietro Castiglioni, Edgar J. Masters, Robert V. Noble, James C. Ramsey, Jr., David H. Sherman, Norman F. Solomon; Hofstra College, William H. Burke; Illinois Institute of Technology, J. Carter Murphy; Southern Illinois University, Robert C. Ashby, Walter H. McDonald; University of Illinois, Dwight B. Goodner; University of Maine, Francis G. Shaw; University of Maryland, Joseph Hilsenrath; New School for Social Research, Marie M. Bestul; Princeton University, Mungo Miller; Queens College (New York), Charles Hoffman; State College of Washington, Thomas J. Matthews; Not in Accredited Institutional Connection, Henry G. Baker (Graduate Student, University of Cincinnati), Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; John E. Brugger (Graduate Student, Pennsylvania State College), Erie, Pennsylvania; Franklin R. Mullaly (Graduate Student, Smith College), Waynesburg, Pennsylvania; James R. Scales (Graduate Student, University of Chicago), Shawnee, Oklahoma; John M. Skrivanek (Graduate Student, University of Texas), Houston, Texas; Lewis E. Solomon (Graduate Student, University of Colorado), Shawnee, Oklahoma; Joseph H. Strain (Graduate School, Boston College), Boston, Massachusetts.

Members Elected

The Committee on Admission of Members announces the election of 1429 Active and 26 Junior Members as follows:

Active

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versity, Ogden Baine, Carl H. Cummings, Harold Jeskey, Ray M. Matson, Arthur Richards, Israel W. Santry, Jr., Lloyd H. Shinnars, Sophus Thompson, Frank L. Williams, Charles L. Wissemann; **Southern University**, Princess M. Bowen, E. Marie Ervin, Ira L. Ferguson, Beatrice H. Grevenberg, Ula M. Keeler, John S. Lash, Lionel H. Newsom, Edward L. Patterson, Jr., Samuella V. Totty, Frederick A. Williams; **Southwestern**, Benjamin A. Wooten, Jr.; **Stanford University**, William A. Bonner, George H. Houck, Alexander L. London, John McClelland, Hayes A. Newby, Juan B. Rael, Douglas A. Skoog, William A. Spurr, William C. Steele, John L. Taylor, Lowell Turrentine; **Stephen F. Austin State College**, Ida Pritchett, Robert L. Turner; **Stephens College**, Lydia Back, Howard P. Baker, James E. Baxter, Edwin B. Libbey, Halvor G. Melom, Dorothy Pollock, Melania Rogers, Edward M. Ryan, Edgar F. Van Buskirk, Vera Z. Washburne; **Stout Institute**, Herman C. Arneson; **Sul Ross State Teachers College**, Clifford B. Casey; **Sweet Briar College**, Jovan De Rocco, G. Noble Gilpin, Roscislaw M. Iwanowski, Kenneth G. Weihe; **Syracuse University**, Arthur W. Brown, Morris Budin, Vincent J. Glennon, John D. Hall, Arthur E. Jones, Jr., Richard C. Lonsdale, Maude A. Stewart, Betty M. Watts, Karl Wernert; **Temple University**, Stephen Abrahamson, John F. Adams, Purnell Benson, Frederick M. Binder, Clifford Brenner, Edwin B. Bronner, Irwin Brown, Josephine H. England, Rita A. Ficchi, Jacob W. Gruber, Leo Jason, Stanford S. Kight, Robert H. Llewellyn, Howard Meroney, Irene Morris, Paul E. Randall, Richard J. Restrepo, Elaine C. Sturm, Robert G. Thompson, Harry M. Tinkcom, Joe Zimmermann; **Middle Tennessee State College**, Philip H. Dalton, Eugene Wiggins; **University of Tennessee**, Robert S. Avery, William J. Hudson, Arthur B. Wood; **Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas**, Bob M. Gallaway; **Texas College**, David Bradford; **Texas College of Arts and Industries**, James H. McCrocklin, Leslie L. Melbern; **Texas State College for Women**, Mona V. Harding; **East Texas State Teachers College**, Robert E. Baker, Leslie D. Keaton, Gertrude Warmack; **Southwest Texas State Teachers College**, Mary L. Hightower; **Texas State University for Negroes**, Joseph J. Abernethy, Thelma O. Bell, Elizabeth W. Bradley, Mamie J. Broussard, Lawrence H. Cook, William H. Cook, Matthew N. Cooper, Charles W. Deslandes, Edward B. Evans, Jr., Jeannette L. Fonsworth, Venetta B. C. Foreman, Eliza M. D. George, Josephine Giles, Henry C. Grant, Frederick Griffin, Andrew J. Kennard, E. W. Kyle, Cecelia S. Lane, Oliver Lattimore, Willard C. McCleary, Hazel L. Morton, Robinson H. Parson, James O. Perry, Clarice E. Pierson, Raleigh P. Player, William H. Porter, Jayne G. Robinson, Lillian P. Samuels, Anna G. Scott, Ollington E. Smith, Elneita W. Stewart, Vernice L. Stewart, Bennie E. Taylor, Joseph A. Taylor, Minnie L. Turner, J. Marie Van Zandt, Peyton E. Walton, Jr., Rosalie O. Whitmore; **Texas Technological College**, Theodore W. Alexander, Neva R. Gahring, Fay Hatto x, William Raffaniello; **University of Texas**, John H. Barr, Jacqueline T. Courtney, Durward H. Dyche, Mary L. Harwood, Wilson M. Hudson, Jr., Vernon E. Lynch, James L. McCary, Gordon Minter, Donald Robertson, Carey C. Thompson; **Uni-**

versity of Toledo, Frank J. Marquis; Tufts College, George B. Burch; Tulane University, George H. Bick, Fred C. Cole, James K. Feibleman, Herbert D. Friedlander, William J. Griffith, Jack F. Harang, William A. Jenkins, Jr., Dan W. Mullin, David A. Shirley, Frank H. Wood; United States Naval Academy, John R. Clark; United States Naval Postgraduate School, David B. Hoisington, Earl Kanter, M. Curtis Smith; Upsala College, Alfred E. Bray, Gerald Davidson, Penelope Dimitriou, Carl Fjellman, Gladys Grindeland, Miriam Grosh, Donald Heines, L. Dale Lund, Kaethe Mengelberg, Ilia Mourmtseff, Gaspard Pinette, John A. Rahb, Robert M. Reed, Friedrich Roetter, August Saenger, Vernon E. Swanson; Utah State Agricultural College, Hugh A. Buntine, John C. Carlisle, Don C. Carter, Joseph Coulam, J. L. Francisco, E. L. Romney, J. Kenneth Vanderhoff; University of Utah, Eldon J. Gardner, Albert W. Grundmann, Clarence R. Wylie; Villanova College, Jerome J. Fischer; Medical College of Virginia, Leslie E. Edwards, Walther Riese, Helen Skowlund, Washington C. Winn; Virginia Union University, Edward D. McCreary, Jr.; Wabash College, Frank D. Horvay, Joseph Zeleniak; Washington College, Charles B. Clark, John S. Smith; Eastern Washington College of Education, Christine Elrod, Dorine Guthrie, Raymond Krebsbach, Bertha T. Lincoln, Mary E. Miles, Gladys O. Philpott, Arne W. Randall, Goldie M. Taylor, Robert M. Trotter; Washington and Jefferson College, Henry P. Bennet, Donald W. Bradeen, Leonard W. Kirby, Julius Kraft, John S. Lindsay, A. Richard Oliver, Francis Wing; Washington State College, Donald Greenaway, L. Arthur Jenkins; Washington University, Norman J. DeWitt, John H. Ernest, Winfred P. Lehmann, Wolfgang J. Thron; University of Washington, Herbert L. Anshutz, Theodore J. Barnowe, Paul A. Bonifas, Wendell Brazeau, A. Evelyn Burke, Harry H. Burns, Carroll A. Burroughs, Gordon P. Campbell, Philip W. Cartwright, Joseph Cohen, Emmett E. Day, Robert H. Dietz, William W. Elmendorf, Michael Guidon III, Markham Harris, Mercedes H. Hensley, H. K. Hossom, John H. Jessup, Pauline Johnson, Roger B. Loucks, Frank S. Melder, Blake D. Mills, Jr., Omer L. Mithun, James B. Morrison, Charles W. Newman, William B. Nordquist, Warren W. Philbrick, Garth L. Putnam, Charles E. Rossbach, George A. Shipman, Dell Skeels, William A. Snyder, Howard E. Sylvester, E. Ayers Taylor, Berenice Thorpe, Elgin Williams, Leota S. Willis, A. M. Winslow, Elinor Yaggy; Wayne University, Viola Dunbar, Selma Guttman, Leo Kirschbaum, Galia Millard, Béla de Tuscon, William White; Wellesley College, Walter E. Houghton; Wesleyan College, Frances G. Candler; Wesleyan University, Morton W. Briggs, William Frost, Victor Jones, John W. Sease, Calvin W. Tenney; West Liberty State College, Joseph A. Bartell, Marion M. Lamb, Kenneth B. McMillen, Ruth W. Vest; West Virginia University, Lillian Allen, W. A. Koehler, William R. Ross; Western Reserve University, Edith E. Layer, Dwight W. Miles; Westminster College (Missouri), William T. Doherty, Jr., Kenneth H. Hansen; Wheelock College, S. Wilcox Harvey; Whittier College, Peter F. Palmer; University of Wichita, Harry C. Mahan, Herbert A. Shumway, Lillie Zimmerman; Wilberforce University,

Leon M. Elam, Leslie R. Nallen; **College of William and Mary**, Michael E. Adelstein, Robert M. Myers; **College of William and Mary (Norfolk Division)**, Lotte Barschak, George A. Beebe, Albert E. Taylor; **Williams College**, Charles D. Cremeans, Emile Despres, William B. Gates, Jr., Robert C. Goodell, Chandler Morse; **Wilson College**, Clara C. Cooper, Elisabeth R. Swain; **Wisconsin State Teachers College (La Crosse)**, Floyd O. Atchley; **Wisconsin State Teachers College (Milwaukee)**, Godfrey D. Stevens; **Wisconsin State Teachers College (River Falls)**, Lura M. Carrithers, J. Knowles Robbins; **University of Wisconsin**, Ray U. Brumblay, Paul G. Jones, Durward C. Layde, James D. Thompson; **Wittenberg College**, Harry S. Wilder; **University of Wyoming**, Richard M. Renfro, Albert B. Short; **Yankton College**, Shapleigh W. Howell, Juul E. van Regteren Altena.

Transfers from Junior to Active

University of Arkansas, William H. Harris; **Boston University**, H. W. Beardsley; **Catawba College**, Marvin D. Wigginton; **Central College (Arkansas)**, Ann Beck; **Iowa State College**, J. E. Humphrey; **Lewis and Clark College**, L. Edward Shuck, Jr.

Junior

Catholic University of America, Richard A. Finnegan; **University of Colorado**, Stephen V. Ballou, L. E. Belstrom; **Columbia University**, Anthony J. Klancar; **Southern Illinois University**, Robert E. Collard, José L. Reyes-Navarro; **University of Illinois**, Lois T. Hartley, Effie N. Hunt; **University of Illinois (Navy Pier)**, Herbert L. Berman; **Indiana University**, Robert F. Volland; **Iowa State College**, Robert N. Goss, William W. Pratt; **Iowa State University**, Charles W. Philhour; **Lincoln Memorial University**, Ann B. Frank; **University of Michigan**, Richard D. Miles; **Eastern Montana State Normal School**, Milton E. Johnson; **University of Notre Dame**, Robert G. Brown; **Ohio State University**, Robert P. Bullock, Marvin R. Koller, Herman Lantz, Morton deC. Nachlas; **Rutgers University**, Muriel De Rose; **Vanderbilt University**, Edwin Larson; **Not in Accredited Institutional Connection**, Edward Blackman (Ph.D., Harvard University), Grove Hall, Massachusetts; Charles H. Eberly (Graduate Student, Yale University), Guilford, Connecticut; Heinz Schwaneger (M.A., University of Pennsylvania), Collingswood, New Jersey.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in reference to announcements published under key numbers should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1011 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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English: Young man with Ph.D. and proven teaching ability. Metropolitan liberal university of the Southwest. Work beginning September, 1949.

V 1267

English, Chemistry, Mathematics, Biology, History, and Economics: A small liberal arts college in the New York Metropolitan area is seeking the services of teachers in the above fields. Prefer Ph.D.'s, but candidates must hold at least the Master's degree. Require at least two years of teaching experience. Minimum salary: M.A.'s \$4000; Ph.D.'s \$5000 for 9½ month academic year.

V 1269

Finance: Associate Professor or Professor. A Western State university is seeking a man to head the Finance Division in the School of Business Administration. Ph.D. in Business Administration or Economics is prerequisite for consideration. Courses such as Financial Institutions, Corporation Finance, Investments, Security and Commodity Markets, etc., would fall under his jurisdiction. Salary range \$4500 to \$5000, depending upon qualifications.

V 1268

History: Several vacancies in Historical Section, U. S. Military Government in Germany. Scholars (men or women) wanted whose fields of specialization are modern European economic history, modern German history, Soviet foreign policy, or American foreign policy. Ph.D. and progressive research and writing experience required. Thorough reading knowledge of German, Russian, and French desired but not essential. American citizenship required. Positions range from P-3 through P-6 (\$4,480-\$7,430, plus differentials). Apply to Overseas Affairs Branch, Civilian Personnel Division, Office of the Secretary of the Army, Washington 25, D. C., enclosing Form 57 filled out in duplicate.

Hygiene, Health and Physiology: Man. Ph.D. desired, but Master's degree plus experience will be considered. Salary and rank will depend upon training and experience. Southern State university. Opportunities in newly organized department. Teach Hygiene, Health and Physiology.

V 1263

Natural Sciences: Instructors in biology, physics, chemistry who are interested in general education and the function of the natural sciences in it. Instructors capable of teaching laboratory techniques as instances of the experimental method are especially encouraged to apply. Salary \$3000-\$5000. Apply: John S. Kieffer, President, St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland.

Physical Education: Man. Major in Physical Education. Ph.D. degree preferred, but Master's degree plus experience will be considered. Salary and rank will depend upon training and experience. Southern State university. Opportunities. Teach professional Physical Education courses. V 1264

Physics: Southwestern church-related university. Man with Master's degree and teaching experience to teach radio theory and electronics. Salary: \$3300 for 9 months. V 1265

Physiologist: Vacancy in the department of Biological Sciences to teach mammalian physiology. Ph.D. required. Teaching experience and interest in research are desirable. Rank of Assistant Professor or Associate Professor will be offered and salary \$3500-\$4200 for 9 months, depending on experience. Summer work for teaching or research available. An Eastern State university. V 1266

Teachers Available

Accounting, Economics, Finance, Management: Strong business, teaching, travel background. Ph.D. and C.P.A. equivalents. Employed in Eastern college. Prefer Southern location. Confidential correspondence invited. A 3014

Administration, English: Man, single. M.A., Phi Delta Kappa, C.E.A., A.A.T.F. Experience as Dean, Admissions and Counseling Director, Chairman of English and French departments. Now Assistant Professor of Business Administration. Prefer combination position. Available in June or September. A 3015

Art: Man, 30, married, 1 child; B.A., M.A., Professional Diploma, Ph.D. in progress; 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ years' experience in Fine Arts and Fine Arts Education; exhibited in New York, Washington, D. C., the Library of Congress, North Carolina, Texas, Missouri, and Connecticut; travel in U.S.A. and Latin America; studied with Harry Sternberg, Carlos Merida, and Diego Rivera; publications; Officer-Instructor with Maritime Commission in World War II; research with American Council on Education; carried out assignments with Office of the Coordinator on Inter-American Affairs and U. S. Office of Education; lecture. Prefer opportunity to teach or build up new art department in progressive college or university. Expert in Serigraphy and Lithography. Salary \$3800 school year. Available January, 1949. A 3016

Art: M.A. 20 years in two Western colleges, art education, appreciation, drawing, painting, design, lettering, crafts. Now employed; wish change; prefer East, North, or West. A 3017

Art (History of Art, Fine Arts, Archaeology): Ph.D. College department head, broad teaching experience, scholarly publications, foreign residence, travel. Holds good position. Location desired: East. A 3018

Art and Languages: Man, 42, graduate Academy of Arts, Bologna, Italy. Represented in the collections of many museums and exhibitions in Europe. Successful experience; drawing, painting, sculpture. Available on reasonable notice. Wife, 35, Ph.D. in Romance and Modern languages, University of Rome. Author, lecturer. Teaching Spanish, Italian, French in the International School of Languages, Los Angeles, California; can also teach History of Art and Music. 10 years of successful experience in Italian colleges. Would like to work in same locality or nearby. A 3019

Art Lecturer, Painter: Woman. Experienced world traveler. Designer many years creative textile work. Available for expeditions or residential work. A 3020

Biology, Zoology: Man, married. Ph.D. About 17 years' teaching experience. Several publications. General zoology, invertebrate zoology, protozoology, parasitology. Can teach general biology and general botany. Desires at least associate professorship at minimum salary of \$4000. Minors, botany and bacteriology. A 3021

- Chemistry: Mature woman, single. Ph.D. Over 20 years of teaching experience. Desires position as department head of a small liberal arts college. Experience includes: prenursing, home economics, nutrition, dietetics; Science teacher's training. Available January, 1949. A 3062
- Chemistry, Visiting Professor of: Available 1948-49. Listed in Who's Who, American Men of Science, Decennial Index of Chemical Abstracts, Cumulative Book Index; Phi Beta Kappa, Sigma Xi, American Chemical Society, Swiss Chemical Society. D.Sc., University of Geneva, Switzerland. Address, George W. Muhleman, 1450 Englewood Avenue, St. Paul 4, Minnesota.
- Dean of Men: Unmarried. M.S. degree in late twenties. At present chief counselor in mental hygiene clinic. Formerly dean of men and professor of psychology. 6 years' experience in college field. Available 1949-50 term. Salary requirement, \$5000. A 3022
- Economics, Accounting and Marketing: B.A., 1937, Economics; M.B.A., 1940, Accounting and Marketing. 1 year teaching experience. Desire economics, finance, marketing, accounting, general administrative, or research position. A 3023
- Economics—Principles, Labor, Money and Banking, Public Finance, and Economic History: Man, 34, married, completing doctoral dissertation. Government and teaching experience; now head of department in junior college. Desires professional advancement. A 3024
- English: Man, 46, single. LL.B. and Ph.D. in English, Cornell. Chairman of department in technical college of large Eastern university. 18 years of university teaching and administrative experience. 7 years as department head in large Latin-American university. 4 years' administrative and editorial experience as Naval Intelligence officer. Commander in Organized Naval Reserve. English Composition; English Literature: Survey, Novel, Essay, World Literature. Qualified to head department in university, liberal arts or technical college. Research and publications. Student activities. Desires full or associate professorship and/or administrative position. Available after June, 1949. A 3025
- English: Man, 25, single. B.A., College of the City of New York; A.M., Columbia University; candidate for Ph.D., New York University. Experience: 3 years, college; 2 years, high school. Major interests: American, Victorian literature. References. Available immediately. A 3026
- English: Man, 44, married, children. Ph.D. 12 years' experience including positions in private institutions and a state university. Specialization: American literature, novel, Victorian. Extensive foreign travel and study abroad. Publications include a book in American literature and notes, articles, and reviews in learned journals and in magazines. Some experience in administration. Available September, 1949. A 3061
- English and Humanities (Engineering or Liberal Arts Students): Man, 44, married, 2 children. B.S. in Engineering, M.A. in English, Ph.D. in English and Comparative Literature. Associate Professor of English and Humanities, and administrator in large institution at \$6000. 22 years' teaching and administrative experience. English Literature Electives, Great Books, World Literature. Particularly qualified to head Social Science-Humanities Division in large Engineering School. Widely travelled. Scholarship, Research Fellowship, Honors. Publications. Who's Who. Outstanding references. Desires full professorship and/or administrative position at \$7500. A 3027
- English and World Literature: Man, married, no children. Ph.D. Extensive teaching experience in English and World Literature courses. Chairman, Humanities and Language Division. Study and travel abroad. Publications. Veteran of World War I. Physically sound, health excellent. Desires professor-

- ship for 6 to 8 years in West Coast college or university. Available second semester or fall, 1949. A 3028
- Fine Arts, Humanities: Experienced teacher of history of Art and Humanities, 43. Desires position in Eastern college as teacher of integrated Humanities course, History of Art and European cultural History. French born (American citizen). Graduate École du Louvre and Sorbonne. For 15 years until 1947 experience in Eastern university in languages, humanities, and history of art. Last rank: Associate Professor. 3 years' experience in Department of State. Presently Curator of Painting in large museum, with responsible administrative duties. Publications and extensive European travel. A 3029
- French: Man, 30, 2 children. B. es L., Magna cum Laude, Paris; B.S., Columbia; A.M., Harvard; Ph.D. under way. Desires Assistant or Associate Professorship, Middle Western college. Extensive travel, Europe and Middle East. 3 years' teaching experience in French schools, 5 years in U. S. colleges. Available immediately and for summer, 1949. Housing important factor. A 3030
- French: Man, unmarried. Ph.D., outstanding Eastern university. Served nearly 4 years in Naval Intelligence in last war. Specialty: 19th century French literature, French novel. Desires permanent position, preferably far-Western institution. A 3031
- French and Spanish: American woman. M.A. European training, extensive foreign residence and travel in Europe and Latin America. Language and area knowledge wide and fluent. Experience, college and university levels. Student foreign travel director, and U. S. Foreign Service as Diplomatic wife. Husband retired, engaged in research. Desires position in one of the three professorial ranks, preferably on West Coast, salary and exact location open. A 3060
- Geography: Man, immigrant, professor of geography. Dr. Phil. Nat. 20 years' university teaching and research experience. Numerous publications in international scientific journals. Many books. Broad training in topography, cartography and in the research of soil, climate and economic problems. Extensive study of European and Eastern problems. Seeking a position in teaching, research, or administration. A 3065
- Geology: Man, 31, married, 1 child. B.S. and M.A., University of Texas. Teaching Fellow, University of Texas. Presently employed in petroleum industry, prefers teaching profession. General geology, sedimentation, petroleum, and structural geology. Widely travelled. Sigma Gamma Epsilon, Phi Sigma, A.A.P.G., A.A.U.P. A 3032
- German: Man, married, Protestant. Ph.D. Head of department; published textbook, articles, book reviews. Special fields: 19th century drama, modern literature, scientific German, other modern languages. A 3033
- German: Doctorate from University of Vienna, Austria. 18 years' university teaching in U. S., all undergraduate courses in German language and literature. 16 years with a college in the East, head of department. Publications, texts, multigraphed teaching material, progressive methods. Desires change to liberal arts college. Teaches also courses in Economics. A 3034
- German and English: Woman. M.A. Now employed as an instructor in an accredited university. Desires summer position in high school, junior college, or university. A 3035
- History: Ph.D. from Northwestern University in History and Political Science; M.A. from University of Nebraska. 23 years' teaching experience, 17 in college. Excellent references. Address: E. M. Hause, 437 Highland Avenue, Boulder, Colorado.
- History: Man, 35. M.A. 2 years' experience in college teaching. Publications in field of American History. Available February or June, 1949. A 3036

History: Woman, single. Ph.D. 1 book and numerous articles in magazines (German, Spanish, Italian, and American) on topics of medieval and Renaissance History. 6 years' college teaching experience in European History and languages. Taught special courses on medieval and modern historical topics in graduate schools. Visiting Professor in Heidelberg, summer, 1948. Has taught since 1944 in New York City college. Seeks permanent appointment in History for spring or fall, 1949. A 3037

History: Man, 35, married, children. Ph.D., 1945. 10 years' experience, including public school, college, graduate teaching, in courses of considerable variety; also administrative experience in manuscript library and in direction of Interdepartmental Major. American history, emphasis cultural. Reviews, articles, completed volume forthcoming, new research well advanced. Now in leading Eastern college. Need adequate housing, salary, security, and chance for advancement. Prefer village or small city location for trio of active sons. Available summer or fall, 1949. A 3038

Latin: Woman. Ph.D., University of Rome. See Art and Languages, A 3019.

Law, Criminology, Political Philosophy, History: Man, 51. Thorough knowledge of Balkan politics, former Minister Plenipotentiary in London, Doctor of Law, University of Berlin, author of many books, barrister. Speaks English, German, French, Russian, and other Slavonic languages. Interested in research or teaching position. A 3039

Law and related subjects: Man, middle life, married. J.D. Experience: 25 years' teaching at college and universities, plus Federal administrative experience. Publications. Special training in Criminal law and procedure, Criminology and Penology. Other law courses taught, notably Constitutional law. A 3040

Librarian: Man. Graduate library degree, M.A. Seeks position as head of library in accredited college or university. Library must function as an educational rather than as a custodial service. All members of professional staff must receive salaries and vacations sufficient to attract capable people. Library must be decently illuminated and have adequate clerical staff. A 3041

Linguist: Woman, under 40. Distinguished refugee, trained in many European countries; fluent command of Russian, French, Czechoslovakian, English; also knows German, Polish, Yugoslavian, Bulgarian, Italian. Experienced interpreter; relied on for accurate translations of confidential discussions at important Allied conferences; enthusiastic recommendations; available immediately. A 3042

Mathematician: Woman, 50 years. M.A. from Teachers College, Columbia. Kappa Delta Pi. Experienced college instructor. Available February, 1949. A 3043

Mathematics: Man, 37. Ph.D. Summer session work, 1949. West Coast preferred, but not essential. Presently employed as assistant professor at a state university. A 3044

Mathematics and/or Administrative: Man, married, 2 children. Ph.D. in Mathematics and professional degree of Civil Engineer. Now teaching with rank of Professor of Mathematics. Has had 26 years of university and college teaching experience. Desires position as chairman of department of mathematics or administrative position of higher rank. Available for summer session 1949 and on a four term or year around basis. A 3045

Mathematics and Mathematical Statistics: Man, 38, married, 3 children. Ph.D. 12 years' experience in research in applied mathematics and mathematical statistics. Now engaged in war research and part-time teaching. Desires full-time teaching. Available February, 1949. A 3046

Modern Languages (French and Spanish): Woman. Ph.D. Two research fellow-

- ships, now Associate Professor in an accredited institution. Would like a more responsible position. A 3047
- Music: Woman. Graduate in piano, Conservatory of St. Cecilia in Rome. See Art. A 3019
- Music: Man, 40, married, 3 children. Ph.D. At present head of a state college music department. Competent singer, teacher, conductor, and administrator. Experienced in dramatics. 13 years in college teaching. Seeking position as head of a school or division of music or fine arts. Prefer connection with an administration interested in expanding this field. Salary around \$6000. A 3048
- Music (Chorus, Violin, Voice, Small Vocal and Instrumental Ensembles): Man, 35, married, 1 child. B.M., Eastman School of Music; M.M., University of Michigan; further study, University of Iowa. Scholarship. Associate Professor of Music in large fully accredited institution at \$3850. 20 years' directing, teaching, and performing experience, 4 of which were in college work including 2 on university level. Broad music experience. Excellent references. Seeking permanent position of full professorship which includes Chorus directing and/or department head in a music school or university. Summer session as part of permanent position—or summer position in another institution—desirable. Desire change this year or next. Available on reasonable notice. A 3049
- Philosophy: Man, 46. M.A. degree with minor in Psychology. Desires teaching assistant or instructorship with university offering Ph.D. in Philosophy. 5 years' successful teaching experience, plus a background of 18 years' business experience. Excellent health. F. H. Werth, Box 223, University Station, Moscow, Idaho.
- Philosophy, Ethics: Man, married. 10 years' college teaching experience. Prefer to specialize in department of philosophy but will also teach general and educational psychology. Interested modern curriculum developments in the humanities. Two textbooks in preparation: *Ethical Problems of Modern Youth*; and *Educational Psychology for Beginning Teachers*. Contributor *Encyclopedia Modern Education*. Listed in *Who's Who in American Education*. A 3050
- Philosophy (History of Philosophy, Greek Philosophy) and Psychology: Man. Ph.D. Many years of teaching experience; desires progressive institution. Member: Ethical Culture Society, American Philosophical Association, etc. Available on short notice. A 3051
- Physical Education and Athletics: Man, 39, married, 1 daughter. M.A. (Physical Education), Ohio State University and an additional year of graduate study completed on doctorate degree. 16 years of teaching and coaching experience in colleges and universities. Administrative experience: hygiene, physical education, teacher training, and head of department of physical education and athletics. Interested in college or university position. A 3052
- Physicist: Retiring professor from Eastern university would like position in small college preferably in New England or in the South. Moderate salary satisfactory. Available February 1, 1949. A 3064
- Political Science and European History: Man, 35, single. Doctorate of Philosophy (Oxford) and Doctorate of Law. Far-reaching research experience in History of Political Thought, Comparative Government, European History from 1500; International Relations; special field: Political Sociology, and Central and Eastern European History. 3 years' teaching experience for Oxford and London University degrees, in Political Philosophy, Sociology, and History. Military and administrative war service. Diplomatic and administrative practice in Allied War Time Government. Experience in educational administration. Publications and references from highest authorities in subjects. Available from fall 1948. Desires Associate Professorship or Lectureship. A 3053

- Psychologist:** Ph.D., mature age, outstanding references, interested in social psychology, personality maladjustment, mental hygiene, psychology for business and industry, clinical psychology. Employed, but desires advancement. Available on reasonable notice. A 3054
- Psychologist:** Experienced university professor, department head, counselor, administrator. Ph.D., Yale; Fellow, A.A.A.S. Available for teaching and/or administrative or counseling position in well established institution with clearly defined goals. A 3055
- Psychology:** Man, European background and degree. 10 years' American teaching experience. Member professional societies. Outstanding references. Subjects: General, Experimental, Social, Abnormal Psychology, Psychology of Religion, Counseling, Personality, Mental Hygiene, Psychotherapy. Active research record. Available on reasonable notice. A 3056
- Psychology, Guidance, Student Personnel:** Man. M.A. with courses completed for Ph.D.; university teaching and counseling (general, personality, clinical, industrial) 3 years; 5 years Naval Psychologist; 2 years administration; director of guidance; secondary school guidance; clinical. Available February, 1949. A 3063
- Sociology:** Man, mature, experienced. Ph.D. Desires department headship in nonsectarian college or university. Prefers Northeast or Far West. Dossier on request. A 3057
- Spanish, Portuguese:** Man, 33, married, 1 child. Sorbonne Ph.D., 1939. Post-graduate studies at Universities of Chicago and Wisconsin. 10 years' experience in teaching of language and literature, including German and French. Adviser of Spanish clubs. Numerous publications. Interested in research. Now assistant professor in State university at \$4000. Desires change to position with tenure. Available spring or summer, 1949. A 3058
- Speech:** Woman. Ph.D. Fundamentals, Dramatics, Speech correction. 8 years in college and university. 18 years in high school. Now teaching in small college. Require one month's notice. A 3059
- Summer Vacation Work:** Englishman (Oxford), 14 years' experience in English universities, 18 years' professor in the American University of Beirut, twice visiting professor in the United States, seeks teaching during the 1949 Summer Vacation, preferably in Middle West. Subjects: Contemporary history and politics, political theory and institutions, French history and literature, English history. R. H. Soltan, Department of History, University College, Aberystwyth, Wales.

The American Hungarian Foundation presents the following data with reference to a number of scholars who are available for teaching or research positions in the United States. Two of the persons are in the United States and are, therefore, immediately available; one is in Paris, and the others are in Displaced Persons Camps and could arrive in the United States in two to six months. These scholars have been displaced by nazi or communist political oppression, and are now fugitives because of the convulsion of history. The Foundation believes that all of these persons would be a distinctive credit to the college or university engaging them.

Their names, credentials and references will be submitted to appointing officers upon request. The Foundation vouches for the character, personality, and desirability of each individual.

Aeronautics, Engineering and Construction of Airplanes: Man, 48, Presbyterian, married, 3 children. M.S. Graduate of Royal University of Budapest. Full-time professor for 5 years at the same university. National supervisor and executive of engineering and planning, Board of Aeronautics. Chief technical adviser during the reconstruction period in Hungary. Speaks Hungarian, German, and some English. H 100

Biology (Zoology), Comparative Anatomy, Botany: Man, 27, Roman Catholic, single. B.A. and M.S. Graduate of Budapest Royal University. Four semesters teaching experience as Assistant Professor of General Botany and Comparative Zoology. Conducted advanced courses in laboratories and seminars. Unique background in special research work in Comparative Anatomy of the Endocrine Glands of Vertebrata and in the Seasonal Rhythm of the Suprarenal Gland of the Carp. Outstanding references from heads of professional departments. Speaks Hungarian, German, and English. H 101

Economics (International Economics, Law, Government, International Trade and Integrated Studies): Man, 32, Presbyterian, single, in Paris. B.S., M.S., Academy Theresianum, Vienna, Austria; University of Cluj, Rumania; Royal University of Budapest, Hungary. Speaks perfect French, German, Hungarian, Rumanian, and English. Seeks permanent post at associate professor level at good institution. 4 years' business and lecturer experience. H 102

Economics and Statistics: Man, 43, Roman Catholic, married. B.S., M.S., D.S., graduate Royal University of Budapest and London School of Economics. Connected with high standing European research institutes. Speaks 5 languages, experienced in lecturing in English. Many years of teaching experience. Author of numerous publications in different fields of economics. Excellent references and credentials. Wife, professional teacher, speaks several languages; also available for teaching position. H 103

Fine Arts (Painting, drawing, theory, and appreciation of art): Woman, 30, Lutheran, married, 1 child. Artist, scholar, and teacher. Graduated with honors from Academy of Fine Arts, Budapest. Has been teaching painting and appreciation of arts for 4 years. Speaks German, Hungarian, and English. (Husband listed under Latin No. H 107.) H 104

French and German: Young woman, Roman Catholic, single. Ph.D. Now in United States. 3 years' successful teaching. 4 years' linguistic work and research. Extensive study and travel in Europe and U.S.A. Desires permanent post in university or college. Excellent references. Fluent English. H 105

History: Woman, 48, Roman Catholic. Ph.D. Now in United States. College and university teaching experience. Also experience in administration. Author of books and articles. Field: European History. Special interest: History of the Near East. Engaged in a special research; therefore interested in position

in or near Washington, Philadelphia, New York, or Boston for the sake of library facilities. Studied in American and European universities. Fluent English, French, German, and Italian. Travelled extensively. Teaching experience in universities here and abroad. H 106

Latin and Classical Philology: Man, 32, Roman Catholic, married, 1 child. B.S. and M.A. Teachers diploma from the University of Bratislava and the Royal University of Budapest. Taught Latin and Classical Literature and Philology 5 years in Budapest. Speaks fluent English, Latin, Slavonic languages, Hungarian, and German. Special teaching ability, outstanding linguist. Excellent references. (Wife listed under Fine Arts, No. H 104.) H 107

Medical Science, Gynecologist-Surgeon: Man, 46, Presbyterian, married, 2 children. Ph.D., M.D. Former head of surgical clinic. Rockefeller Foundation Fellow at Royal University of Budapest, Hungary. Special experience in teaching, outstanding professional honors. Speaks some German and English. Available immediately. H 108

Modern History and Military History: Man, 40, Roman Catholic, married, 3 children. Doctor of Political Science, Royal University of Budapest. Associate Professor of Modern History and Military History at the University of Szeged, Hungary. Professional journalistic experience. Thorough experience in diplomacy and military diplomacy. Excellent credentials as to teaching ability and personality. Speaks fluent English, German, Italian, French, and Hungarian. H 109

Music (Music Theory and History, Musical Education): Man, 45, Roman Catholic, single. Ph.D. Graduate of Imperial University of Vienna and graduate of Royal University of Budapest. 20 years' pedagogical experience. Desires permanent position in combined Musical Education and Musical History in college. Able to teach German Literature and language. Various publications in professional field. Speaks Hungarian, German, and some English. H 110

Psychology: Woman, 38, Presbyterian, single. Ph.D., M.D. Extensive and outstanding instructional, clinical, and administrative experience. Former head of Department of Health. Doctor of Philosophy in field of Education. Graduate and postgraduate studies at Strasbourg, France; Geneva, Switzerland; Budapest, Hungary. Speaks German, French, English. Special subjects: Genetic Psychology, Children's theories concerning life. H 111

Statistician (Agricultural Economy, Farming, and Banking): Man, 43, Roman Catholic, married. B.S., M.S., D.S., graduate Royal University of Budapest and University of London, England, School of Economics. Connected with high standing European research institutes. President of research institute for 5 years. Author of textbooks on Statistics and numerous publications in different fields of Economics. Experienced in lecturing in English. Many years of experience in teaching. Speaks 5 languages. Wife, professional teacher, speaks several languages. Available immediately for U. S. teaching position. Best credentials and references. H 112

The persons in the Displaced Persons Camps are screened by the American immigration authorities abroad. Each one is available under the rulings of the International Refugee Organization to accept offers of positions in colleges and universities in the United States. Their travelling expenses are reimbursed by the government of the United States of America if otherwise admitted, as per the provisions of Public Law #774.

Inquiries in reference to the teachers listed above should be addressed to: Dr. Stephen E. Balogh, National Secretary, American Hungarian Federation, 1624 Eye Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D. C.

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